



3 1761 11850631 0

REPORT

of the

ROYAL COMMISSION

ON EDUCATION

IN ONTARIO

1950



Ontario Royal commission on
education
Report

1950

REPORT OF THE ROYAL COMMISSION
ON EDUCATION IN ONTARIO

1950



Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2023 with funding from
University of Toronto

<https://archive.org/details/31761118506310>

CA20N
Z1
45B01

REPORT
of the
ROYAL COMMISSION
ON EDUCATION
IN ONTARIO
1950



TORONTO: PUBLISHED BY BAPTIST JOHNSTON
Printer to the King's Most Excellent Majesty

MEMBERS OF THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON EDUCATION IN ONTARIO

THE HONOURABLE MR. JUSTICE JOHN ANDREW HOPE, D.S.O., M.C., V.D.,
(*Chairman*)

MARSHALL ARCHIBALD CAMPBELL, Esquire
A. VANCE CHAPMAN, Esquire
WILLIAM HENRY CLARKE, Esquire, B.A.
CHARLES RICHARD CONQUERGOOD, Esquire
EDWARD FAWCETT HENDERSON, Esquire
RUTH S. HOUCK, B.SC. (Mrs. John E. Houck)
ARTHUR KELLY, Esquire, K.C., B.A.
BLANCHE MARSHALL, B.A., LL.D. (Mrs. Robert J. Marshall)
NORMAN MCLEOD, Esquire, M.A., B.PAED.
RALPH JAMES NEELANDS, Esquire, M.B.
HELEN ISABEL NEW, C.B.E. (Mrs. Ryland H. New)
JOSEPH M. PIGOTT, Esquire, C.B.E., K.C.S.G.
LOFTUS HENRY REID, Esquire
CHARLES RUPERT SANDERSON, Esquire, M.A., B.SC.
MISS HELEN MARGARET SHEPPARD
SIDNEY EARLE SMITH, Esquire, K.C., M.A., LL.B., LL.D., D.C.L., F.R.S.C.
HENRI SAINT-JACQUES, Esquire, K.C., B.A., B.PH.
THE VENERABLE ARCHDEACON W. A. TOWNSHEND, L.TH., D.D.
WILLIAM L. WHITELOCK, Esquire, D.D.S.

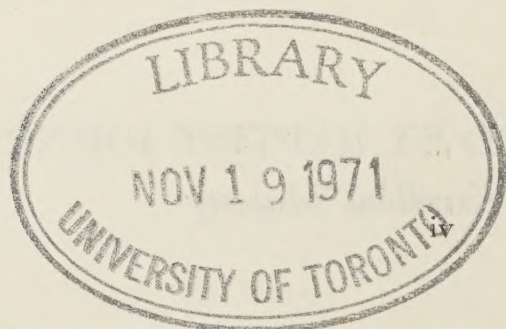
Secretary: R. W. B. JACKSON, Esquire, B.A., PH.D.

Assessor: F. S. RIVERS, Esquire, B.A., B.PAED.

Counsel: MAJOR ANGUS DUNBAR, K.C.

The late MR. FRED MOLINEUX, O.B.E., was also a member of the Royal Commission on Education in Ontario.

The late DR. V. K. GREER, M.A., LL.D., was, until his death in 1945, Assessor to the Commission.



PROVINCE OF ONTARIO

GEORGE THE SIXTH by the Grace of God of Great Britain,
Ireland and the British Dominions
beyond the Seas KING, Defender of
the Faith, Emperor of India.

TO

HONOURABLE MR. JUSTICE JOHN ANDREW HOPE of Toronto,
MARSHALL ARCHIBALD CAMPBELL of Toronto, VANCE CHAPMAN
of Port Arthur, WILLIAM HENRY CLARKE of Toronto, CHARLES
RICHARD CONQUERGOOD of Toronto, EDWARD FAWCETT
HENDERSON of Toronto, MRS. R. J. MARSHALL of Toronto, NORMAN
McLEOD of Toronto, FRED MOLINEUX of Hamilton, DR. RALPH
JAMES NEELANDS of Kirkland Lake, MRS. RYLAND NEW of Oakville,
JOSEPH M. PIGOTT of Hamilton, LOFTUS HENRY REID of Toronto,
MISS HELEN SHEPPARD of North Bay, CHARLES RUPERT
SANDERSON of Toronto, DR. SIDNEY EARLE SMITH of Toronto,
HENRI ST. JACQUES of Ottawa, REV. CANON WILLIAM A.
TOWNSHEND of London, DR. WILLIAM L. WHITELOCK of Hamilton,
MRS. J. HOUCK of Brampton and ARTHUR KELLY of Toronto.

GREETING:

WHEREAS in and by Chapter 19 of The Revised Statutes of Ontario, 1937, entitled "The Public Inquiries Act", it is enacted that whenever Our Lieutenant-Governor in Council deems it expedient to cause inquiry to be made concerning any matter connected with or affecting the good government of Ontario, or the conduct of any part of the public business thereof, or of the administration of justice therein, and such inquiry is not regulated by any special law, he may, by Commission appoint a person or persons to conduct such inquiry, and may confer the power of summoning any person or persons to conduct such inquiry, and may confer the power of summoning any person and requiring him to give evidence on oath, and to produce such documents and things as the Commissioners deem requisite for the full investigation of the matters into which they are appointed to examine;

AND WHEREAS Our Lieutenant-Governor in Council of Our Province of Ontario deems it expedient to cause inquiry to be made concerning the matters hereinafter mentioned;

NOW KNOW YE that WE, having and reposing full trust and confidence in you the said Honourable Mr. Justice John Andrew Hope,

Marshall Archibald Campbell, Vance Chapman, William Henry Clarke, Charles Richard Conquergood, Edward Fawcett Henderson, Mrs. J. Houck, Arthur Kelly, Mrs. R. J. Marshall, Norman McLeod, Fred Molineux, Dr. Ralph James Neelands, Mrs. Ryland New, Joseph M. Pigott, Loftus Henry Reid, Miss Helen Sheppard, Charles Rupert Sanderson, Dr. Sidney Earle Smith, Henri St. Jacques, Rev. Canon William A. Townshend, and Dr. William L. Whitelock, DO HEREBY APPOINT you to be Commissioners to inquire into and report upon the provincial education system, and without derogating from the generality thereof, including courses of study, text books, examinations, financing, and the general system and scheme of elementary and secondary schools involving public schools, separate schools, continuation schools, high schools, collegiate institutes, vocational schools, schools for the training of teachers and all other schools under the jurisdiction of the Department of Education, as well as the selection and training of teachers, inspectors, and other officials of such schools, and the system of provincial and local school administration.

AND WE DO HEREBY CONFER on you Our said Commissioners the power to summon any person or corporation and require him to give evidence on oath and to produce such documents and things as you Our said Commissioners deem requisite for the full investigation of the matters into which you are appointed to examine, by subpoena signed by the Chairman or any one of the Commissioners hereby appointed;

AND WE DO HEREBY APPOINT you, the Honourable Mr. Justice John Andrew Hope, to be Chairman of the said Commission;

TO HAVE, HOLD AND ENJOY the said office and authority of Commissioners for and during the pleasure of Our Lieutenant-Governor in Council for Our Province of Ontario.

IN TESTIMONY WHEREOF We have caused these Our Letters to be made Patent, and the Great Seal of Our Province of Ontario to be hereunto affixed.

WITNESS: THE HONOURABLE ALBERT MATTHEWS
 LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR OF OUR PROVINCE OF ONTARIO

At Our City of Toronto in Our said Province, this twenty-first day of March in the year of Our Lord one thousand nine hundred and forty-five and in the ninth year of Our Reign.

BY COMMAND

(*signed*)

G. H. DUNBAR,
Provincial Secretary.

*To His Honour, the Honourable Ray Lawson, O.B.E., LL.D., D.C.L.,
The Lieutenant-Governor of Ontario*

Sir:

By direction and on behalf of the Royal Commission on Education, appointed by Order-in-Council under date of March 21st, 1945, I have the honour to submit our Report.

It is with deep regret and a sense of severe loss that I record the death of one of Your Commissioners, the late Mr. Fred Molineux, O.B.E., in March last. Prior to the time of his final illness, Mr. Molineux worked assiduously and conscientiously on our common task. His contribution was at all times recognized and valued by his fellow-Commissioners.

The Report consists of the following:

1. The Majority Report signed by fifteen of the remaining twenty members of Your Commission, and, appended to it, three memoranda signed in all by four of the fifteen Commissioners—two of these four differ on three of the points contained in the Majority Report, and the other two Commissioners differ on two of the same three points.
2. A Minority Report signed by four Commissioners who are not signatories to the Majority Report, and appended thereto a further memorandum by one of these four Commissioners.
3. A separate statement by the remaining Commissioner.

In submitting the complete Report, may I, as Chairman, express and gratefully record my deep appreciation of the loyal co-operation, valuable assistance, and unremitting work of all members of Your Commission without in any degree excepting those whose deep-rooted personal convictions did not permit them to subscribe to the Majority Report.

I have the honour to be,

Sir,

Your obedient servant,

(signed) J. A. HOPE
Chairman,

The Royal Commission on Education.

December 15, 1950.

PREFACE

1. We, the undersigned Commissioners, appointed by Order-in-Council dated the 21st day of March, 1945, to inquire into and report upon the system and state of education in the publicly supported schools of the province, humbly beg to submit our Report.

2. From the outset of our labours we were impressed with the wide scope of the investigation assigned to us, but the true immensity and complexity of the task became more and more evident as we proceeded. It was only as we learned of the time required by earlier committees of inquiry in other jurisdictions as well as in this province to deal with specific phases only of the general problem embraced by the broad terms of our reference, that we became reconciled to the great length of time demanded.

3. We began our inquiry in April, 1945. The Commission as a whole sat a total of 142 days, and the Commissioners individually, quite aside from their work on specific committees, devoted months of unremitting toil to their task. In addition, committees of the Commission to which were assigned particular inquiries sat a total of 116 days. The Editing Committee, appointed in September, 1948, to supervise the preparation of the final draft of our Report, sat a total of 33 days, and, further, individual members of this Committee devoted the equivalent of approximately 60 days of full-time work to the criticism and editing of drafts of chapters.

4. At the beginning of our investigations, a general invitation was extended to all public bodies and organizations as well as to private individuals to submit briefs and give evidence. The response was magnificent; 258 briefs and 44 memoranda were submitted. The majority of those who submitted briefs appeared before the Commission for discussion of their views. Public sessions were generally held in Toronto, but, in order that the members of the Commission might gain a more intimate knowledge of the educational problems peculiar to the territorial districts and in order that the presentation of briefs and oral evidence by individuals and organizations in that part of our province might be facilitated, a number of public sessions were held at strategically situated centres in Northern Ontario. Evidence of our indebtedness to these organizations and individuals for assistance thus rendered may be found throughout our Report; their contributions and willing co-operation are appreciated by the Commission.

5. With terms of reference so wide and with so many persons qualified through experience and training to express an opinion on specific aspects of education, it was not infrequently a matter of considerable difficulty to select the witnesses to furnish oral evidence and the experts to submit special reports. Our invitations to such individuals received ready and

generous response. We wish at this time to express our gratitude for their advice and assistance. In particular, officials of the Department of Education were unfailing in their courtesy and co-operation in appearing before us to give evidence and in furnishing statistical and other information requested from time to time.

6. In addition to the foregoing phases of our investigation, individual members and group of members of the Commission and its staff visited other provinces and countries to obtain information from officials and accredited persons and authorities. They received uniformly cordial assistance. We record our gratitude to those individuals and officials in England, Scotland, Northern Ireland, Sweden, Denmark, and the United States of America, as well as to those in our sister provinces of the Dominion, who generously made available helpful information and advice based upon their wide experience and invariably extended to us gracious hospitality.

7. We express to Your Honour the deep sense of loss which we have sustained in the death of our friend and fellow-Commissioner, Mr. Fred Molineux, through whose deep interest in many special phases of education we were privileged to enjoy wise and helpful counsel. We were fortunate, as a Commission, in that Mr. Molineux's illness did not deprive us of his advice until we had reached our main and governing conclusions, which he had helped to draft.

8. We wish to place on record our unstinted and unqualified appreciation of the work of, and our gratitude to, the staff placed at our service in fulfilling our task, in particular to our Secretary, Dr. Robert W. B. Jackson, and our Assessors, the late Dr. V. K. Greer, and Mr. F. S. Rivers. Dr. Greer's sudden death on November 11th, 1945, was a grievous loss to the Commission. Long a valued official of the Department of Education, where, at the time of our appointment, he was Superintendent of Elementary Education, Dr. Greer, by virtue of his vast knowledge and experience, sound judgment, and common sense, was a tower of strength and a wise counsellor in the initial stages of our labours. We were indeed fortunate to secure as his successor an official of the Department whose valuable professional experience and quiet sensible approach to the problems confronting us, together with his indefatigable industry, have contributed so immensely to our work.

9. Our Secretary, Dr. Jackson, has displayed unremitting zeal, great organizing ability, clear judgment, and a complete grasp of the problems involved. The tact, energy, and enthusiasm of both these officials have gone far to smooth the way and lighten the work of the Commission. They have been fertile in suggestions as well as clear and accurate in handling detail. To Dr. Jackson's conversance with statistical methods and his conspicuous ability in dealing with them, we are especially indebted. We desire to bring to the notice of the University of Toronto and the Département of Education our strong sense of the value of the services which these gentlemen have

rendered to the Commission, and which they are capable of rendering to the cause of education in this province not solely because of their personal and professional qualifications but particularly because of the vast knowledge and understanding of all aspects of education acquired in the course of their work with our Commission. The services of these officials should not be lost to the province in the future.

10. Our Counsel, Major Angus Dunbar, K.C., gave valuable assistance during our public sessions and meetings of committees through his kindly but masterly examination of the witnesses appearing before us. At a later stage of our work, particularly during the preparation of preliminary drafts of our Report, we frequently called upon his services for legal advice and opinions.

11. We wish to record, also, our appreciation of the valuable assistance given by other members of our staff. To Mr. E. Brock Rideout we are particularly indebted for his services to one of our committees and for his careful and detailed study and report to the Commission as a whole upon the many problems associated with our investigation of the administration and supervision of education in this province and in other jurisdictions. In the preliminary stages of the preparation of our Report, we were fortunate to secure the services of Mr. G. E. Johnson, High School Inspector, and Dr. F. W. Minkler, Public School Inspector, who acted as consultants, and from whom we obtained expert advice on particular phases of elementary and secondary education. The Department of Education again made the services of Mr. Johnson available to us when these were required for certain tasks associated with the preparation of the final draft of our Report. The editing of the final draft of the Report was expedited through the expert assistance of Professor and Mrs. B. Wilkinson. Our public and private sessions were accurately and efficiently recorded by Mr. H. O. Taylor and Mr. R. N. Dickson. Our office staff, under the able direction of Mrs. Aileen Black, prepared copies of the many reports and memoranda required; their devotion to duty, and the accuracy, efficiency, and expedition with which they did the clerical work did much to aid us. For the services of all these members of our staff we are indeed deeply grateful.

12. Our public sessions in Toronto were held in the Senate Chamber of the University of Toronto, our private sessions in the Board Room of the Toronto Board of Education, and the meetings of our Editing Committee in the Board Room of the Toronto Public Library. To meet in such delightful surroundings was a pleasure and served to lighten our hours of long and arduous labour. Our sincere thanks are extended to the Board of Governors of the University of Toronto, to the Toronto Board of Education, and to the Toronto Public Library Board for their kindness in placing such excellent accommodation at our disposal.

13. We wish also to express our appreciation to the following individuals, organizations, and publishers for permission to quote copyright

materials properly attributed to them in the text: American Council on Education; Clarke, Irwin & Company Limited; Messrs. William Collins Sons & Company Limited; J. M. Dent & Sons (Canada), Limited; Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association of the United States; His Majesty's Stationery Office, Edinburgh, Scotland; His Majesty's Stationery Office, London, England; Houghton Mifflin Company, The Riverside Press; The Library Association, London, England, and Mr. L. R. McColvin (author); Mrs. Margaret McCutcheon, for the late John M. McCutcheon; New Zealand Council for Educational Research; Dr. A. C. Lewis, Dean, Ontario College of Education; The Ryerson Press; Stanford University Press; Teachers College, Columbia University, Bureau of Publications.

NOTE

We have made references throughout the text of the Report to the various statutes of the Province of Ontario. Since the preparation of our Report, the statutes of the province have been revised and issued as the Revised Statutes of Ontario, 1950. It should be noted that all our references are to earlier editions of these statutes or amendments thereto, not to the statutes in their present form (R.S.O. 1950).

CONTENTS

MEMBERS OF THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON EDUCATION IN ONTARIO	iv
ROYAL WARRANT	v
LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL	vii
PREFACE	ix
I. THE EDUCATIONAL SCENE	3
Ontario Today	3
The Pioneer Period, 1800-1840	9
The Period of Expansion, 1840-1870	12
The Period of Consolidation, 1870-1900	15
The Twentieth Century	18
II. AIMS OF EDUCATION	23
Bases for Various Educational Philosophies or Theories	24
Fundamental Issues in Education	25
Cardinal Virtues	27
The Force of Habits, Customs, and Conventions	29
The General Scope of the Curriculum	31
The Role of the Teacher	34
The Development of the Whole Child	34
Aims	36
To Develop Capacity to Apprehend and Practise Basic Virtues	36
To Develop the Power to Think Clearly, Independently, and Courageously	37
To Develop Talent to Understand the Views of Others and to Express One's Own Views Effectively	37
To Develop Competence for a Suitable Occupation	37
To Develop Good Health	38
To Develop Aptitudes for Recreation	38
To Develop Characteristics for Happy Family Relations	38
To Develop Good Citizenship	38
To Develop the Concept that Education is a Continuing Process Beyond the School	39
Conclusion	39
III. PROPOSED REORGANIZATION OF ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION	41
Extension of Compulsory School Attendance	41
Provision of Stages Within the Educational System	47
Stages in Child Development	49
Proposed Stages of the Educational System	51
Provision of Educational Facilities	53
A. Elementary Education	53
(1) Nursery Schools and Classes	53
(2) Kindergartens	53
(3) Elementary School (grades I to VI inclusive)	54
B. Secondary Education	55

C. Further Education	56
(1) Junior Colleges	56
(2) Provincial Technical Institutes and Apprenticeship Training	58
(a) Provincial Technical Institutes	58
(b) Apprenticeship Training	59
(c) Organization of Programmes of Technical Education and Trade Training	59
(3) Part-time Education	61
The Reorganized Educational System	62
Implementation of the Reorganization	64
IV. THE PUPIL'S GROWTH AND PROGRESS	66
Patterns of Child Growth	67
Physical and Motor Development	68
Social and Emotional Development	69
Mental Development	72
Implications for the School Programme	75
General Implications	75
Implications for Kindergartens	80
Implications for Elementary Schools	80
Implications for the Secondary School	82
Implications for Further Education	83
The Measurement of Pupil Growth	84
School Examinations	87
Recommendations	93
Student Counselling	96
V. PROGRAMMES FOR THE SCHOOLS OF THE REORGANIZED EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM	100
Introduction	100
Co-education	104
The Curriculum	106
A. Nursery Schools and Kindergartens	106
B. Elementary Schools	108
C. Secondary Schools	110
D. Further Education	117
(1) Junior College Courses	117
(2) Provincial Technical Institute Courses	121
(3) Part-time Day and Evening Courses	122
Constructing Curricula and Courses of Study	122
VI. SOCIAL, SPIRITUAL, AND OTHER ASPECTS OF EDUCATION	123
Religious Education	123
Public Elementary Schools	123
Secondary Schools and Junior Colleges	127
Religious Emblems	128
Health Education and Services	129
Temperance Education	132
Sex Education	134
Education for Homemaking	135
Agricultural Education	137
Education in Rural Areas	139
Co-curricular Activities	141

Audio-Visual Aids in Education	141
Textbooks and Classroom Supplies	145
Libraries in Ontario	149
(1) Classroom Libraries	150
(2) School Libraries	151
(3) Public Libraries	152
(4) Provincial Library	154
Research and Experimentation in Education	155
Citizenship and the School Programme	161
Contribution of School Subjects	165
(1) Religious Education	166
(2) English	166
(3) Social Studies	169
(4) Other School Subjects	172
Contribution of Other Phases of the School Programme	173
Hours of Study	173
School Terms and Holidays	173
Interruptions of the School Programme	174
Daily Sessions	174
Use of the English Language in Instruction and Communication in Publicly Supported Schools	175
VII. CENTRALIZATION AND DECENTRALIZATION IN ADMINISTRATION	178
Centralization and Decentralization in Ontario	180
Development Toward the Centralization of Educational Administration in Ontario	183
Decentralization and Centralization Under Other Jurisdictions	187
England and Wales	187
Australia	191
(a) Advantages of a Centralized System	191
(b) Disadvantages of a Centralized System	192
The United States of America	192
Other Provinces of Canada	195
Summary	197
Appendix—Supporting Evidence Relating to Centralization and Decentralization	198
VIII. DEVELOPMENT AND PRESENT STATUS OF LOCAL SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION	204
The Development of Units of Administration and Local Education Authorities in Ontario	204
Elementary Education	204
Secondary Education	209
Municipal Boards of Education	212
The Municipal Structure of Ontario	213
The Present Status of Local Units of School Administration and Local Education Authorities in Ontario	214
Administrative Units and Local Education Authorities for Elementary Education Only	217
For Public School Education Only	217
(1) In Rural Areas	217
(2) In Urban Communities	220
Administrative Units and Local Education Authorities for Secondary Education Only	221

High School Districts and their Boards	221
Continuation Schools Districts and their Boards	224
Administrative Units and Local Education Authorities for Public Elementary and Secondary Education	226
Union Boards of Education	227
Municipal Boards of Education	228
Counties and Local Municipalities and their Councils as Local Units of School Administration and Local Education Authorities	229
The County Council as an Intermediate Education Authority	229
Resident, County, and Non-resident Pupils	230
City, Town, and Village Councils as Intermediate Local Education Authorities	231
Complexity of Local School Unit Organization in Ontario	235
IX. LOCAL SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION UNDER OTHER JURISDICTIONS	238
Units and Boards in England and Wales	238
Internal Organization and Administration of a County Education Authority	239
Composition of Various Educational Bodies in England	239
Joint Education Boards	242
Joint Education Committees	242
Comments on the English Administrative System	242
Units and Boards in Scotland	243
Motivating Factors in the Development of Larger Units of Administration in Canada and the United States	243
Units and Boards in the United States of America	245
(1) The County-Unit States	245
(2) States Using the Township and Town as Basic Units of Administration	248
(3) States Using the District as a Basic Unit of Administration	248
(a) Reorganization by County Committees	249
(b) The Central Rural District Law of New York State	251
(c) The County as an Intermediate Unit in Ohio	251
Summary	251
Units and Boards in Canada	252
British Columbia	252
Alberta	255
Nova Scotia	256
New Brunswick	257
Saskatchewan	260
Manitoba	262
Quebec	263
Prince Edward Island	265
Newfoundland	266
Ontario	266
Summary for Canada	266
X. LOCAL UNITS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION IN THE PROPOSED REORGANIZATION	268
Current Opinion	268
Nature of a Satisfactory Unit	268

Relation Between Local School Units and Municipal Boundaries	269
Status of Urban Centres	270
Population as a Basis	271
Area as a Basis	273
Sub-units of the Basic Unit	273
Ad Hoc Boards or Municipal Councils	274
Elected or Appointed Boards	275
Criteria for the Nature and Size of the Local Unit of School Administration	275
Alternative Plans for the Reorganization of Local School Units	282
Recommendations Relating to Local Units of School Administration	284
Post-elementary Education	284
Public Elementary Education	287
XI. LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES IN THE PROPOSED REORGANIZATION	289
Types of Local Education Authorities for Ontario	289
Plan A: Regional Board of Education (Urban Type)	290
Plan B: Regional Board of Education (Rural Type)	290
Plan C: Autonomous Post-elementary School Boards and Public School Boards	291
Powers and Duties of Local Education Authorities in Ontario Under the Proposed Reorganization	292
Maintaining Local Interest in Education	297
Number of Members, and Method and Time of Election of Local Education Authorities	297
Optimum Number of Members of a Local Education Authority	298
Method of Election	298
Time of Election	299
Conclusions	300
Term of Office and Method of Retirement of School Board Members	301
Remuneration of Members of School Boards	301
Relationship Between Local Education Authorities and Municipal Councils	303
Qualification and Disqualification of School Board Members	305
Advisory Vocational Committees	307
XII. OTHER ASPECTS OF THE LOCAL ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION	309
Transportation of Pupils	309
Services in Lieu of Transportation	312
Residences for Teachers	313
Non-resident Pupils	313
Post-elementary Schools	313
Elementary Schools	314
Enforcement of Compulsory Attendance	316
Administration of Health Services in Schools	317
XIII. THE SUPERVISION OF EDUCATION	321
Concepts of Administration, Supervision, and Inspection	321
Development of Administration and Supervision of Education in Ontario	322

Development Prior to 1846	322
Development Under Ryerson, 1846-1876	324
Development since 1876	327
Present Organization for, and Administration of, the Supervision of Education	330
Under the Central Education Authority	330
Supervision under Local Education Authorities	331
Training of Supervisory Personnel	332
Duties and Training of School Business Officials	333
Recommendations Relating to the Supervision of Education	334
Organization for Supervision	334
Qualifications of Supervisory Officials	337
Qualifications of Business Administrators	339
XIV. THE CENTRAL EDUCATION AUTHORITY	340
Nature of the Central Authority	340
Development and Present Status of the Department of Education	341
Present Organization of the Department of Education	342
Weaknesses in the Present Organization of the Department of Education	348
Proposed Reorganization of the Department of Education	349
Division of Elementary Education	352
Division of Secondary Education	352
Special Education Branch	352
Division of Further Education	353
Division of Professional Education	353
Division of Curriculum	353
Division of Business Administration	354
Division of the Registrar	354
Public Library Services	355
Salaries and Qualifications of Departmental Personnel	355
Office Accommodation for the Department of Education	356
Organization and Operation of the Divisions of the Department of Education	356
Central Advisory Council	356
Other Departments of Government	358
Department of Health	358
Department of Labour	359
Department of Agriculture	359
Department of Mines	360
Department of Lands and Forests	360
Department of Municipal Affairs	360
Inter-Departmental Committee on Education	360
Acts and Regulations Respecting Education	361
XV. EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN	363
Classification of Exceptional Children	363
(1) Physically Atypical	364
(2) Mentally Atypical	364
(3) Attitudinally Atypical	365
(4) Socially Atypical	365
Development of Special Education for Atypical Children	365
The Administration of Special Education in Ontario Today	372
Discovery and Admission of Pupils	374
Special Education Programmes	375

CONTENTS

xix

Recommendations on Special Education	377
Administration	380
Ineducables	383
Speech-defective, Crippled, and Home-bound	383
Far-away and Neglected	384
Partially Sighted and Blind	384
Hard-of-hearing and Deaf	385
Mentally Atypical	389
Attitudinally Atypical	391
 XVI. HISTORY OF THE FRENCH LANGUAGE IN THE PUBLICLY SUPPORTED SCHOOLS OF ONTARIO	392
Prior to 1885	392
From 1885 to 1911	398
Report of Commissioner F. W. Merchant in 1912	405
Regulation 17 (See also Appendices A and B)	408
Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee and its Report	411
Since 1927	415
Appendix A—Instructions 17, 1912	421
Appendix B—Instructions 17, 1913	423
 XVII. RECOMMENDATIONS ON THE TEACHING AND USE OF THE FRENCH LANGUAGE	426
Present Position	426
Population of Ontario of French Racial Origin and of French Mother Tongue	426
Status of the French Language in Canada and in Ontario	428
The Programme in those Public, Separate, and Secondary Schools in which Provision is made for Special Courses in French	430
Opinions Relating to the Teaching and Use of French in Publicly Supported Schools	435
The Teaching and Use of French in the Schools of the Reorganized Educational System	438
French as a Subject of Study in Elementary and Post- elementary Schools	438
French as a Subject of Study and Language of Instruction and Communication in Elementary Schools	438
General Conditions Governing Granting of Permission	439
Use of English and French	442
Programme of Studies	444
Supervision of Instruction	448
Professional Preparation of Teachers	451
Advanced French Courses in Publicly Supported Post- elementary Schools	454
Correspondence Courses	456
 XVIII. ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF SEPARATE SCHOOLS IN ONTARIO	458
Number and Growth	458
Legislation Affecting Separate Schools Prior to Confederation	461
Changes Since Confederation in Legislation Affecting Roman Catholic Separate Schools	474
Roman Catholic Separate Schools and Secondary School Education	474
Administration of Roman Catholic Separate Schools	476

	Assessments, Borrowing Powers, and Grants	478
	Appendix (Act of 1863)	484
XIX.	ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOLS IN THE REORGANIZED EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM	492
	The Problem of Roman Catholic Separate Schools	492
	Status of Roman Catholic Separate Schools	500
	Roman Catholic Separate Schools in Relation to the New Stages of Education	503
	The Educational Programme in Roman Catholic Separate Schools in the Proposed Reorganization of the Educational System	506
	The Teaching Staff of Roman Catholic Separate Schools	509
	Administration of Roman Catholic Separate Schools	512
	Formation of a Roman Catholic Separate School Corporation	513
	Section 21 of <i>The Separate Schools Act</i>	515
	Union Separate School Boards	515
	Qualifications of Trustees and Electors	519
	Powers and Duties of Trustees	520
	Attendance of Pupils	521
	Financing Roman Catholic Separate Schools	522
	Implementing Our Recommendations	532
XX.	PROTESTANT AND COLOURED SEPARATE SCHOOLS IN THE REORGANIZED EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM	534
	Separate Schools for Coloured People	535
	Protestant Separate Schools	536
XXI.	THE TEACHING STAFF OF THE PUBLICLY SUPPORTED SCHOOLS OF ONTARIO	540
	Professional Preparation of Teachers for Elementary Schools	540
	Pre-service Training of Teachers for Elementary Schools Today	544
	In-service Training of Elementary School Teachers Today	545
	Professional Preparation of Teachers for Secondary Schools	546
	Pre-service Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools Today	548
	In-service Training of Secondary School Teachers Today	549
	Professional Preparation of Prospective Vocational School Teachers	549
	Training of Teachers of Vocational School Subjects Today	550
	(1) Teachers of Trade Subjects	550
	(2) Teachers of Commercial Subjects	551
	(3) Teachers of Home Economics (General)	551
	(4) Teachers of Industrial Arts and Crafts	551
	(5) Vocational School Principal's Certificate	552
	Number and Distribution of Teachers in Service	552
	Supply of Teachers	556
	(1) Elementary Schools	556
	(2) Secondary Schools	560
XXII.	RECOMMENDATIONS WITH RESPECT TO THE PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF TEACHERS	564
	Teacher Training in Other Provinces and Countries	565
	Canada	565

CONTENTS

xxi

England	569
United States	570
Trends in Teacher Education in England and the United States	571
General Organization of the Proposed Teacher-Training Programme for Ontario	572
Proposed Programme for the Training of Prospective Teachers for Elementary Schools	579
Buildings for Junior Colleges of Education	579
Staffs of Junior Colleges of Education	580
Requirements for Admission to a Junior College of Education	581
Programme of Junior Colleges of Education	582
Proposed Programme for the Training of Prospective Teachers for Secondary Schools and Junior Colleges	584
Buildings of the Ontario College of Education	586
Staff of the Ontario College of Education	587
Requirements for Admission to the Ontario College of Education	587
Programmes of the Ontario College of Education	588
Courses Leading to Supplementary Teaching Certificates	589
The University of Toronto Schools	590
Interim Measures to Staff the New Secondary Schools and Junior Colleges	591
Other Recommendations Relating to the Programme for the Training of Teachers	592
Proposed Programme for the Training of Prospective Teachers of Special Schools and Classes	594
Proposed Programme for the Training of Prospective Teachers for Provincial Technical Institutes	595
The Teacher-Training Programme in Relation to Courses in Universities	596
Summer School Courses Offered by the Department of Education	598
Appendix—Report on An Emergency Training Scheme for Teachers for the Public and Separate Schools of Ontario	600
XXIII. CONDITIONS OF SERVICE OF TEACHING PERSONNEL	611
Agreements Between Teachers and Boards of School Trustees	611
Duties of Teachers	616
Security of Tenure	616
Salaries of Educational Personnel	620
Superannuation of Educational Personnel	631
Organizations, Conventions, Group Meetings, and Publications	640
The Teaching Profession Act, 1944	640
Teachers' Organizations	642
Conventions and Group Meetings of Teachers	643
Professional Publications for Teachers	643
Special Opportunities for Professional Advancement	644
The Teacher as a Citizen	646
XXIV. COMMUNITY PROGRAMMES OF ADULT EDUCATION AND RECREATION	647
Development and Organization	647
Recommended Provisions for Community Programmes of Adult Education and Recreation	651

XXV.	SCHOOL SITE, PLANT, AND EQUIPMENT	655
	Brief History of School Buildings	655
	School Building Requirements	657
	Publications Relating to School Buildings	660
	Anticipated Need for School Buildings	660
	General and Specific Suggestions	661
	Temporary Buildings	661
	School Sites	661
	Auditoria	662
	Maintenance of School Buildings	662
	Use of School Accommodation for Community Purposes	662
	Possible Economies in School Construction	663
XXVI.	OTHER EDUCATIVE AGENCIES	666
	Private Schools	666
	Residential and Day Schools	666
	Trade Schools	669
	(1) Business Colleges	670
	(2) Technical Schools	670
	(3) Correspondence Schools	671
	Day Nurseries	671
	Day Care Centres	673
	Language Schools	674
	The Education of the Indian Children of Ontario	675
	Art Gallery of Toronto	677
	Royal Ontario Museum	678
	Junior Red Cross	679
	Ontario Federation of Home and School Associations	679
	Imperial Order Daughters of the Empire	680
XXVII.	THE DEVELOPMENT OF METHODS OF FINANCING EDUCATION IN ONTARIO	682
	Financing Public Education in Ontario Today	682
	Development of the Bases of Local Financial Support of Publicly Supported Elementary and Secondary Education in Ontario	687
	Development of the Bases for Provincial Financial Assistance to Publicly Supported Elementary and Secondary Education in Ontario	698
	Basis for the Distribution of Legislative Grants as Introduced in 1945	705
XXVIII.	OUR PROPOSED METHOD OF FINANCING THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMME	709
	Local Financial Support of Elementary and Post-elementary Education	709
	Present Methods of Financing	709
	Recommendations	712
	Local Sources of Revenue	713
	Equalization of Assessment	715
	Budgets and Development Plans	717
	Township and County Levies and Grants	718
	Audits of School Accounts and Transactions	718

CONTENTS

xxiii

Provincial Financial Support of Elementary and Post-elementary Education	719
Special Legislative Grants	719
General Legislative Grants	719
(a) Elementary Schools	720
(b) Secondary Schools	721
Distribution of General Legislative Grants Under the Reorganized Educational System	722
Apportionment by the Legislature of Funds Appropriated by It for Educational Purposes	727
Distribution of Legislative Grants to Elementary Schools	727
Distribution of Legislative Grants to Post-elementary Schools	731
Other Expenditures of the Department of Education Related to the Operation of Elementary and Post-elementary Schools	732
Legislative Grants to Other Agencies	734
Legislative Grants by Other Departments of Government	734
Federal Aid to Education	736
XXIX. DIVERGENCE OF OPINION WITHIN THE COMMISSION	738
XXX. CONCLUSION	747
MINORITY REPORT BY DR. R. J. NEELANDS AND DR. W. L. WHITELOCK	755
MEMORANDUM BY MR. A. V. CHAPMAN	773
MEMORANDUM BY DR. SIDNEY E. SMITH	775
MINORITY REPORT AND MEMORANDA SUBMITTED BY NON-SIGNATORIES TO THE MAJORITY REPORT	777
MINORITY REPORT BY MR. E. F. HENDERSON, MR. ARTHUR KELLY, MR. J. M. PIGOTT, AND MR. HENRI SAINT-JACQUES	779
APPENDIX: A History of the Roman Catholic Separate School Controversy	803
Introduction	803
I. The Pioneer Era	806
II. Bishop Power and Catholic Education	818
III. Ryerson and the New Plan	826
IV. The Fiery Fifties	843
V. The Confederation Agreement	862
VI. Secondary Schools	874
VII. Principles Behind the Conflict	881
MEMORANDUM BY MR. HENRI SAINT-JACQUES	895
MEMORANDUM BY MR. W. H. CLARKE	899
APPENDICES TO THE REPORT OF THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON EDUCATION IN ONTARIO	909
A. BRIEFS SUBMITTED TO THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON EDUCATION	911
B. MEMORANDA SUBMITTED TO THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON EDUCATION	918
C. WITNESSES APPEARING BEFORE THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON EDUCATION	920

REPORT OF THE ROYAL COMMISSION
ON EDUCATION IN ONTARIO

1950

CHAPTER I

THE EDUCATIONAL SCENE¹

1. So wide is the panorama of education in Ontario that the individual may well stand amazed at its many aspects: the complexity of the administrative machinery; the multiplicity of studies and activities; and the diversity of ideas regarding purpose and practice. The whole is difficult to comprehend, and only the specialist knows the parts in detail. It is, however, the variety rather than the size of the provincial educational organization which is most impressive: public schools; separate schools; continuation schools; high schools; collegiate institutes; vocational schools; technical institutes; schools operated by the Department of Education for the deaf and the blind; schools for the training of educational personnel—all these and more are found in the great organization which has evolved over the years for the development of the province's greatest natural resource, its young citizens.

2. It will be generally agreed that such an organization should be subjected to periodic review in order that its efficiency and practices may be appraised and necessary improvements effected. Nations emerging from war have frequently made such reviews; indeed there is a direct relationship between warfare and educational development. In war, human effort is stretched to its utmost; emphasis is placed upon human and spiritual rather than upon materialistic values; and the national awareness of the virtues of loyalty, patriotism, co-operation, and sacrifice is renewed and invigorated. At such times, man naturally turns to the improvement of education, wherein lies his greatest hope for the realization of his ideals.

3. At the outset of such a review, it must be recognized that the aims as well as the organization and administration of education have always been influenced by social, geographic, and economic conditions. It is necessary, therefore, to note some of the conditions which have deeply influenced the development and even the purposes of our educational system.

4. Ontario, the second largest province in the Dominion of Canada, has a total area of 412,582 square miles, including 49,300 square miles of lakes

¹Except where otherwise stated, statistics in this chapter are taken from *A Conspectus of the Province of Ontario*, 1947, published by authority of the Provincial Treasurer.

and rivers, and a total population of approximately 4,000,000. Lying between the provinces of Quebec and Manitoba, it extends 1,000 miles from east to west and more than 1,000 miles northward from the Great Lakes to Hudson Bay. Some three and one-half times as large in area as the British Isles, it is approximately equal in size to the combined areas of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, and Wisconsin.

5. Although our province is actually made up of several geological formations, it is commonly divided into three sections—the St. Lawrence Lowlands, the Canadian Shield, and the Hudson Bay Coastal Plain. The St. Lawrence Lowlands include most of what is usually known as “Southern Ontario”. This section is divided into two parts—Eastern and Western—by the Niagara Escarpment, a line of cliffs, 250-300 feet high, extending from Queenston Heights near Niagara Falls to the Bruce Peninsula. The fertile soil and favourable climate of Southern Ontario support well developed farming communities and thriving commercial and industrial centres. The Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence River, containing the greatest volume of fresh water in the world, form an inland waterway shared by Canada and the United States, which carries much of the commerce of the central part of the continent and gives access to the Atlantic Ocean. More than two-thirds of Ontario’s urban population is located along its shores.

6. The Canadian Shield includes more than two-thirds of the province. It covers practically all of Northern Ontario except the Hudson Bay Coastal Plain, and a portion of the south-eastern part of the province. Its heavily glaciated surface is generally rugged, composed of a succession of rounded hills. It has countless rivers and lakes of irregular shape and varying size. Most of it is ill suited for agriculture, though there are some areas suitable for this purpose—particularly the famous Clay Belt which gives great promise for agricultural development. The latter area is served in part by the Ontario Northland Railway and attracts an increasing number of settlers each year. The Shield is an almost incredibly rich storehouse of mineral and forest wealth, an important source of water-power, and a popular vacation-land. It is sparsely settled despite the existence of centres of mining, lumbering, pulp and paper manufacture, transportation, and power development. Much of the Canadian Shield—and most of the Hudson Bay Coastal Plain, an area of more than 80,000 square miles—remains unsurveyed.

7. Ontario’s climate is healthy and invigorating. Much of the province enjoys approximately 2,000 hours of sunshine a year and some of it more. Temperatures are generally moderated by the Great Lakes and Hudson Bay, although in some areas they run to extremes. The average annual rainfall for the past 64 years has been more than 24 inches, and the average annual snowfall has exceeded 6 feet.

8. Because of her rich natural endowment, Ontario has a per capita production more than 20 per cent higher than that for Canada as a whole. Many industries have been developed in the province; in 1945 the net value

of the products of manufacturing was nearly four times that of agriculture, seven times that of forestry, and nine times that of mining. The growth of special services such as merchandising, construction, finance, transportation, and communication—a growth which accompanies expanding industry and a growing population—places Ontario in a very strong economic position.

9. Ontario is well served by the two great transcontinental railway systems, the Canadian National and the Canadian Pacific. The Ontario Northland Railway, owned and operated by the Provincial Government, serves the area from North Bay to Moosonee. The Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence River permit shipping to move from the Head of the Lakes to the Atlantic Ocean. The network of the King's Highways spreads over Ontario. Air travel is rapidly increasing throughout the province.

10. For purposes of municipal organization, the province is divided into 12 territorial districts in the north and into 43 counties in the south. The districts include 85 per cent of the total area, but the counties contain more than 85 per cent of the total population. As recorded in the 1941 census, the population is predominantly British; 72 per cent trace their origin to the British Isles. The next largest group, containing nearly 10 per cent of the population, is French and is concentrated mainly in the Ottawa Valley, in Essex and Kent Counties, and in Northern Ontario. Other groups are German, Netherlands, Jewish, Italian, Polish, Ukrainian, North American Indian, Scandinavian, and Finnish. These groups range in size from 4.4 per cent to .7 per cent of the total population. Over 30,000 North American Indians and Eskimos live in the province. However, more than 90 per cent of the people of Ontario speak English; 7.5 per cent speak both English and French; less than 2 per cent speak French only; and about one-half of one per cent speak neither English nor French. Of the many religious denominations, 6 have more than 100,000 members. These, in order of size, are: the United Church, Roman Catholic, Anglican, Presbyterian, Baptist, and Lutheran. More than two-thirds of the total is contained in the first three groups.

11. A special study of the population trend in Ontario made by the Ontario Department of Health in August, 1944, indicated that the population of Ontario should increase, assuming a normal rate of immigration, by 400,000 within 17 years. This estimate will undoubtedly be exceeded; conditions are now favourable for selective immigration, and many immigrants have settled in Ontario since the close of the Second World War. More striking than the increase in population, however, is the growth of cities, towns, and suburban areas. Fifty years ago the ratio of urban to rural population was two to three; today it is reversed. This urbanization is closely associated with the great industrial development of the province during the same period of time.

12. It is natural that such a large province, with great variety in climate, natural resources, and type of population, should present many educational problems. Climatic conditions affect the type of school building, the trans-

portation of pupils, and school holidays. The varying density of population makes it almost impossible to provide a uniform system of education, though this is being more and more nearly achieved. The rapid growth in population, in particular that caused by immigration, has created many problems. Educational facilities must be provided not only for a greatly increased school population, but also for many thousands of persons who do not know our language and culture. Our freedom of religious worship gives rise to special considerations relating to instruction in religious knowledge. Underlying all our educational problems is the question of financial resources. In this respect, the people of Ontario are especially fortunate in that they are able to support a relatively high standard of educational service.¹ The manner in which the authorities have attempted to solve these problems is indicated in the following brief survey of the organization of publicly supported education² in Ontario today.

13. In this organization, elementary schools are known as either public or separate, and secondary schools include collegiate institutes, high schools, continuation schools, and vocational schools. In terms of years, the organization is commonly described as an 8-5 plan. The elementary schools normally offer a programme given in eight grades, exclusive of the kindergarten; the secondary schools give courses from grades IX to XIII. In the former the age of pupils is generally from 6 to 14, and in the latter, from 14 to 19 years. Some elementary schools offer courses in grades IX and X, sometimes referred to as fifth classes; a good number of them have a kindergarten. Some secondary schools give courses only to the end of grade XII; among these are the majority of the continuation schools, several vocational schools, and very small high schools employing only two teachers.

14. In the elementary schools, the subjects of study for grades I to VI are as follows: English, arithmetic, social studies, health and physical training, natural science, music, and art. In grades VII and VIII, crafts, agriculture, and industrial arts and crafts or home economics may be added at the discretion of the local school board.

15. A number of children who live in sparsely settled parts of Northern Ontario are beyond the reach of the regular school system. To meet their needs, correspondence courses, including special courses for children whose mother tongue is French, have been arranged by the Department of Education. These courses are available also to children who cannot attend school on account of illness or physical disability, to children of missionaries

¹K. F. Argue, *Wealth, Children and Education in Canada*, Report on the Financing of Education in Canada, prepared at the request of the Alberta Teachers' Association for presentation at the National Convention of the Canadian Teachers' Federation, Vancouver, B.C., August 13-17, 1945, pp. 12-13.

²By the phrase "publicly supported education" we mean education in public, separate, continuation, high, and vocational schools, collegiate institutes, school for the blind, school for the deaf, normal schools, and other schools and classes below the university level conducted in accordance with the provisions of the various school Acts and in receipt of legislative grants made under *The Department of Education Act*.

and others who are temporarily outside Canada, to children in sanatoria and preventoria where there is no resident teacher, and to prisoners in penitentiaries and reform schools in Ontario. In addition, on the recommendation of the local elementary school inspector or high school principal, any pupil attending school may be enrolled for correspondence courses in any subject, academic or vocational, not provided in the local school. Over a period of 22 years, the annual enrolment of pupils in these courses has increased from 200 to 1,600. Lessons are supplied in academic subjects for all grades from I to XII and in vocational subjects in grade IX. The courses are given free of charge and textbooks are provided up to and including grade VII. Special courses for adults in some elementary school subjects are also available.

16. In a similar way, Ontario's unique "School on Wheels" has been developed to meet the needs of children living in isolated areas but within reach of a railway. The "school" is a specially equipped railway car containing a classroom and living quarters for the teacher. Seven such cars, operating over a total distance of more than 1,000 miles, offer educational opportunities to more than 200 boys and girls. The railways provide the cars, the transportation, and part of the cost of building spur lines; the Department of Education pays for the renovation of the cars and for the instruction, and pays a percentage of the railway's investment in the undertaking.

17. The provision for the education of handicapped children in auxiliary classes and in the provincial school for the blind and the provincial school for the deaf is described in a subsequent chapter.

18. The courses in secondary schools are diversified to meet the needs of the adolescent pupil. In collegiate institutes, high schools, and continuation schools, the General Course is offered. For grade IX it includes the following subjects:¹ English, social studies, physical education, guidance (occupations), mathematics, general science or agricultural science, French, either art or music or art and music, shop work or home economics, agriculture, and either typewriting or business practice or typewriting and business practice. The first five subjects are obligatory and the remainder are listed as options. For a complete year's work any three of the options are taken in addition to the five obligatory subjects. An additional option may be taken by a pupil at the discretion of the board of trustees.² In schools which have a department organized for the purpose, there is practical work in agriculture. In grades X, XI, XII, and XIII some subjects are obligatory. In grade X these are English, social studies (history and geography), and physical education. In grades XI and XII, history replaces social studies; and in grade XIII, English and physical education are the only obligatory subjects. In many of the smaller schools, because of the

¹See *Circular H. S. 1*, 1950.

²Department of Education, *Memorandum*, May, 1950.

limited number of subjects taught, the individual student has no choice in the selection of subjects qualifying for the graduation diploma.

19. In vocational schools the following courses may be offered: industrial, agricultural, home economics, commercial, and art. These are normally four-year courses, providing a general education combined with specialized training in some particular field of work. Technical institutes have recently been established at Haileybury, Hamilton, Toronto, and Port Arthur-Fort William. The institute at Toronto is polytechnical; the one at Haileybury specializes in mining; the one at Hamilton concentrates on textiles; and the institute at Port Arthur-Fort William offers technical courses in mining and forestry as well as the first-year university courses in general arts, applied science, and professional forestry.

20. The following certificates and diplomas in elementary and secondary education are awarded by the Department of Education:¹

- (1) *The Intermediate Certificate*—to students who have successfully completed the prescribed courses for grades VII, VIII, and IX and one of the prescribed courses for grade X.
- (2) *The Secondary School Graduation Diploma*—to students who have successfully completed one of the courses prescribed for grades XI and XII or such modifications of these courses as the Minister may approve at the beginning of the school year.
- (3) *The Secondary School Honour Graduation Diploma*—to students who have completed a course of study prescribed for grade XIII and hold standing in English composition and English literature and in six grade XIII papers chosen from the optional subjects.

The Intermediate Certificate, for which there are no departmental examinations, is awarded on the recommendation of the principal of a secondary or elementary school, but the recommendation of an elementary school principal is subject to the approval of his inspector. The Secondary School Graduation Diploma and the Secondary School Honour Graduation Diploma are awarded on the recommendation of a principal of a secondary school, but, for the latter diploma, credits in grade XIII subjects are prescribed, which can be obtained only by passing the upper school examinations set and marked under the supervision of the Department of Education.

21. The pronounced trend toward universal education at the secondary school level has made necessary a curriculum designed not exclusively for university entrance, but to meet a great variety of needs. Among the changes which have resulted are an increase in the number of optional subjects, a reduction in the number of external examinations, an increased emphasis on extra-curricular activities, and the provision of special direction and supervision for music, art and crafts, health activities, guidance, and audio-visual aids. The need to make adequate provision for bright children, for backward children, and for other atypical children has been recognized,

¹See *Circular H.S. 1*, 1950.

but action has been delayed by the difficulty of providing for individual differences. And, despite an extensive building programme, a deficiency of accommodation exists. This has been aggravated by the postponement of construction during the years of depression and the Second World War.

22. Our educational system has evolved slowly over the years; it has conformed to changing conceptions of education and has been adapted to meet special local conditions as society developed and new needs arose. Many of the problems associated with the system today have their origin in history and hence cannot be understood or resolved without a knowledge of the past.

23. Only a brief summary of the developments of the past 150 years need be given at this point. They fall conveniently into four periods: the Pioneer Period, 1800-1840; the Period of Expansion, 1840-1870; the Period of Consolidation, 1870-1900; and the Twentieth Century.

The Pioneer Period, 1800-1840

24. At the opening of the nineteenth century, the population of Upper Canada was 70,000. Nearly all the settlers lived in scattered clearings hewn from the forest. By 1841 the number of inhabitants had increased to more than 450,000. Life was rigorous; communication and travel were difficult; money and manufactured goods were scarce; and almost everything had to be grown or made on the farm. There were few books and newspapers; and there was little leisure or opportunity for intellectual or aesthetic pursuits of any kind.

25. The schools were generally regarded as existing primarily for those who might be expected to enter the professions or take positions in the government. This is not surprising, since at this time no country in the world had a scheme of general schools arising from a belief in universal education. Land grants for grammar schools and a university had been set aside in 1797, but these had had little effect. The District Public School Act of 1807,¹ which provided grants of £100 a year each to the masters of eight public (grammar) schools, was more successful. In addition to the institutions which resulted from these efforts, some private schools and a few academies founded as voluntary undertakings by religious bodies or by townspeople came into existence. By 1839 there were about 40 or 50 schools which might be described as secondary on the grounds that they offered advanced instruction. Of these, 13 were public (grammar) schools, and perhaps a quarter of the remainder might qualify as academies. Attempts were also made to establish institutions of higher education. Through the efforts of John Strachan, a charter for an Anglican university was secured in 1827; but there was opposition to its religious exclusiveness, and it was found possible to set up only a superior grammar school—Upper Canada

¹An Act to Establish Public Schools in each and every District of this Province, 47 Geo. III, Ch. 6, S.U.C.

College—which offered some instruction at the higher level and served as a temporary university from 1830 until 1843, when King's College was finally opened in Toronto. Meanwhile, the Methodists, led by Egerton Ryerson, opened Upper Canada Academy in 1837; this became Victoria College in 1841.

26. Elementary schools were established more slowly. The representatives in the Legislative Assembly who were vigorous in denouncing provincial expenditure on grammar schools for the few were less vigorous in advocating education for the many. In 1816, however, an Act¹ was passed to provide for the operation of elementary schools. It set aside £6,000—largely for the payment of teachers' salaries—to supplement the rate-bills and other contributions collected from parents. Each school was to have three elected trustees. Shortly afterwards attempts were made to establish monitorial schools of the type operated in England by the National Society² and to bring all education under the direction of the central authority. The success of these efforts, however, was limited and short-lived. The General Board of Education, appointed by the Legislature in 1823, exerted some influence through the free distribution of Mavor's Speller; but in a country where the population was scattered and transportation slow there was little hope of securing conformity to regulations and no excuse whatever for monitorial schools, designed as they were for hundreds of pupils in a classroom. It is not surprising, therefore, that the General Board was disbanded in 1833, and that in the same year grants to elementary schools under local control were substantially increased.

27. In 1830, when the population of Upper Canada was about 200,000, there were approximately 400 elementary schools, enrolling a total of some 10,000 pupils. The typical elementary school at this time was a structure of logs, about 18 feet by 20, equipped only with rough benches, a slanting board along the wall for writing, a lectern-type desk for the teacher, a fireplace, a pail and dipper for drinking water, and a supply of birch rods. The teacher had his textbooks—a spelling book which might, like Mavor's, serve every purpose, probably also a speller and a reader of more advanced type, an arithmetic, possibly a grammar and a geography, and certainly a Bible. The pupil brought such textbooks as were available, a slate, and such paper as could be found. Ink, pens, and rulers were usually home-made.

28. As a rule, the common school was in operation for six months during the winter. The teacher was often an old soldier or a newcomer without capital, ill qualified for more lucrative pursuits, who was willing to accept free board, a small government grant, and the prospect of collecting a

¹*An Act Granting to His Majesty a sum of money to be applied to the use of Common Schools throughout this Province, and to provide for the Regulations of said Common Schools*, 56 Geo. III, Ch. 36, S.U.C.

²*The National Society for Promotion of the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church throughout England and Wales.*

small additional amount from rate-bills on parents for his half-year's hire. The common-school teacher of 1830 had, himself, only a common school education and no professional training; his essential qualification was ability to suppress disorder while the pupils committed to memory the lessons of the textbook and recited them for him. The pupils, usually 12 to 25 in number, attended on a voluntary basis. They were for the most part 6 to 10 years of age; but young men and women of 18 or 20 sometimes returned to school for the winter in cases where a competent teacher had been engaged. In some places a school for girls and young children who could be spared from the work at home might be conducted by a woman. Only too frequently, some schools remained closed for a full year or more because no teachers could be found.

29. From the scanty evidence available, it appears likely that nearly all children remained at school long enough to learn to read in a halting, mechanical fashion and to spell orally a considerable number of words. This required a laborious pilgrimage of from 9 to 15 months in the spelling book. The pupils progressed from the alphabet to words of two and three syllables; and they had parallel lessons in reading. The latter began with sentences composed of two-letter words, such as SO HE IS UP, and arrived as quickly as possible at sententious narratives, strongly moral and religious in tone. After about 15 months of spelling and reading, approximately four-fifths of the pupils remained to learn writing and arithmetic and to read and spell from more difficult books. About nine months appears to have been the average time required for this. Only a small minority of pupils remained longer; these studied grammar and geography where the teacher was qualified to instruct in these subjects. The usual common school education, therefore, consisted mainly of the study of spelling, reading, writing, and arithmetic during four six-month periods of voluntary attendance. There was also religious and moral instruction, which consisted of memorizing New Testament verses and reading the Bible. Meagre as such an education was, it at least equalled, if indeed it did not surpass, that generally received by children in England and other countries at this time.

30. The selection and arrangement of the content of the courses of study in this old-time schooling, while perfectly logical from an adult point of view, were uninteresting and probably almost unintelligible to the child. Partly as a consequence, discipline was harsh. The range of the content was narrow, but it should be remembered that the aims of education were limited. Most parents thought that children derived little advantage from more than the minimum of "book learning" required for the simple business of contemporary life. Leaders in church and state emphasized the need for obedience and conformity. It was not fashionable to encourage initiative in the child. The pupil in school was expected to memorize and not to question. The sort of thing he memorized is illustrated by the definition which he

learned by heart as an introduction to a new process in arithmetic: "Multiplication teaches of two numbers given to find a third which shall contain either of the given numbers as often as the other contains a unit."

31. The 11 grammar schools in operation during the year 1829 had a total of only 280 pupils enrolled. Of these, 61 were learning to read and write, 112 were studying grammar and mathematics, and 108 had reached the secondary level and begun the study of Latin. Although the grammar schools were intended only for boys, girls were sometimes admitted if their parents refused on social grounds to send them to common school. Obviously, therefore, a grammar school did not cater only to advanced students. The grammar school master—usually a clergyman of the Church of England—was competent to impart a knowledge of Latin and mathematics, and occasionally of Greek, by the traditional methods which he had acquired at grammar school and university. Since a pupil in the classics paid substantial fees and often paid also for fuel, repairs, and board, the total income of the master, including the government grant of £100 and his stipend as minister, was such that he could live with the dignity befitting his position. School was conducted in the master's house, in rented premises, or in a school-house. The pupils ranged in age from 5 to 17 years, and the school year was usually ten months or more in length. Teaching procedure was generally by way of the routine individual assignment and recitation. The curriculum included English grammar, Latin, mathematics, religious knowledge, and some history and geography. Since each school was virtually a law unto itself, an exceptional master like the brilliantly gifted Strachan might enrich the content and enliven the nature of the instruction he gave; but the average teacher kept to the narrow grind.

32. The progress of education was impeded during the period by jealousy and distrust between opposing political factions. The grammar schools were attacked by those who objected to a disproportionate expenditure of public money on education designed for relatively few children. The common schools were disliked by others on the grounds that they were following the pattern of the American district school; and their teaching was distrusted if it happened to be done by American teachers or through the medium of American textbooks. Some supporters of the Family Compact, opposed to the growing spirit of "insubordination and equality" among the people, favoured a differentiated education for the few. The political struggle of the time had its repercussions on the development of education; indeed, it occasionally brought both grammar schools and common schools to a rather sorry plight.

The Period of Expansion, 1840-1870

33. Between the census years 1841 and 1871 the population of Ontario grew from 456,000 to over 1,620,000. There was a rapid rise in the first decade, owing to a flood of immigration, and afterwards a steady increase.

Urban centres increased in size and in number. Whereas in 1831 there were only five centres with 1,000 or more inhabitants, in 1871 there were 12 with over 5,000 and 26 with over 2,000. Transportation and communication were greatly improved in the 1850's through the building of railways and the introduction of cheap, prepaid postage and the telegraph. Wealth, comforts, and books increased, and reading became more popular. The new influx of immigrants coincided with the extension of political responsibilities; in the 1840's democratic control over politics was established, locally by the Municipal Acts, and provincially through the attainment of responsible government. The influx coincided also with a rapid expansion of educational facilities and a marked improvement in educational practice and ideas.

34. The man of the hour was Egerton Ryerson. It was he who, as Superintendent of Education¹ from 1844 to 1875, fashioned and constructed the Ontario school system. He set up a strong central authority to prepare regulations, to draw up a course of study for the whole province, to enforce the use of a single set of authorized textbooks, and to control the qualifications of teachers. At the same time, he left to the local boards definite responsibilities, including the engagement of teachers and the maintenance of the school. By 1850 he had not only achieved all this in spite of opposition, but had also introduced normal school training and some degree of supervision over schools by county boards and local superintendents. During the 20 years that followed, he persuaded 4,000 out of 4,400 school boards to finance education entirely from local taxes and thus provide free schools. This and other improvements he brought about by persistent missionary zeal, through public statements and addresses, and through his annual reports in the *Journal of Education*.

35. A few statistics will indicate the extent of the educational expansion during this period. Between 1845 and 1871, enrolment in common schools increased at a rate approximately twice that of the population—from about 96,000 to 446,000. The school year, which was less than eight months long in 1844, had been extended to over eleven months by 1871. At the latter date the ordinary period of schooling was probably about five years, or nearly twice as long, in months, as that for the pioneer child. The total amount spent on salaries of teachers and maintenance of schools was over four times as great in 1870 as in 1850. At the beginning of the period there were no common school libraries; in 1870 there were 1,146, with a total of 240,000 volumes.

36. As might be expected, the typical common school of 1860 was an ungraded rural school, although graded schools existed in cities and towns. The school-house was of frame construction and had a blackboard, maps, and desks instead of benches for the pupils. The teacher was still a man who had neither normal school training nor grammar school education. The curriculum included two new subjects which were thought to be valuable

¹His exact title varied, but the variations are of minor significance.

for citizens of a democracy—grammar for clear thought and accurate speech, and geography for a knowledge of the world. The most striking innovation, however, was the new method of class teaching—by oral question and answer. This, of course, was the result of Pestalozzian influence. Ryerson spread it by way of the *Journal of Education* and the normal schools. Graduates of these schools taught the gospel in county teachers' associations. The new method was made possible largely by the adoption of uniform textbooks for all pupils in the schools.

37. But, while education in the elementary schools was developing rapidly, it was in the secondary schools that a fundamental change occurred. This did not happen until Ryerson had been in office for some time. Although an Act had been passed in 1839¹ to increase the number of grammar schools, Ryerson paid little attention to such schools until he was able to bring them under the central authority. In 1853 an Act² was passed which made two fundamental changes: firstly, it required the county councils to appoint the trustee boards, thus instituting an indirect type of local control; secondly, it encouraged the establishment in smaller centres of the so-called union schools, which consisted of grammar schools linked to common schools. The aim of this second change was to make secondary education available to more young people. At the same time Ryerson introduced the grammar school entrance examination to keep elementary school pupils out of the grammar schools and to make the latter a true secondary stage of education between common school and university. Unfortunately, however, when the grammar schools were thus made a part of the common educational system, it was not possible to go far in introducing a suitable curriculum. Science, for example, was included; but there were few teachers qualified to give instruction in it. Thus the new pupils of the grammar schools, however little taste or use they might have for what they acquired, were obliged to follow the traditional academic curriculum. On the other hand, the quality of secondary education suffered by the pretence that such an education could be given in small union schools without adequate staff or facilities.

38. In 1860 there were 86 grammar schools with enrolments ranging from 25 to 150 and a total enrolment of 4,400 pupils. Although they varied greatly, we may select a school of 50 pupils as reasonably typical of this time. It would be housed in a freehold brick building equipped with blackboards, maps, and globes, but without a library, scientific apparatus, or other modern facilities. Pupils paid about \$18 a year in fees and usually remained in school for two years or a little more, frequently for the purpose of qualifying for an elementary school teaching certificate. As for the

¹An Act to Provide for the Advancement of Education in this Province, 2 Vict., Ch. 10, Sec. 8, S.U.C.

²An Act to Amend the Law Relating to Grammar Schools in Upper Canada, 16 Vict., Ch. 186, Sec. 10 and 11 (4), S.P.C.

teachers, the headmaster of the typical school was probably a university graduate, and his assistant, if any, was most likely certificated as having lower, but acceptable, academic attainments. Their salaries might be \$700 and \$400 a year, respectively. These salaries were low enough, but were better than they appear to be since skilled and unskilled labourers at that time received about the same wage per day as they receive now per hour.

39. Of the 50 pupils attending our typical grammar school in 1860, nearly all were studying English, mathematics, and geography; a majority were studying British, ancient, or Canadian history, usually the first; about half received instruction in Latin, about one-quarter in French, and about one-seventh in Greek. About half the pupils were also recorded in the register as students of science; but this meant little more than that they were studying the selections on science in the authorized reader. On his visit to the school, the grammar school inspector would find the teaching of most subjects to be superficial; it would not stimulate thought and understanding; it would require chiefly a memorization of definitions and facts. Only one pupil in thirty who entered a grammar school passed the easy matriculation examinations, although there were now a number of universities, including Victoria College, founded in 1841, Queen's College, 1842, the University of Toronto (formerly King's College), 1849, and Trinity University, 1852.

The Period of Consolidation, 1870-1900

40. These were years of broadening outlook. Ontario was now a member of a growing federation, linked to other provinces by three-cent postage in 1868, by the Intercolonial Railway in 1876, and by the Canadian Pacific Railway in 1887. The new contacts extended beyond the Canadian borders; the International Bridge at Niagara was opened in 1873; in the nineties there was a large exportable surplus of Canadian wheat; in the last year of the century a Canadian contingent went to the Boer War. At the same time new horizons were opening up for a good many individual citizens; during these same years the prejudice against reading as a pastime almost entirely disappeared. Whereas in pioneer days little was read except the Bible and an occasional newspaper, and in the mid-century only purposeful reading of factual books was regarded as reasonably respectable, in the period following Confederation fiction and poetry were widely read.

41. These broader horizons were reflected in education. The school readers were replaced by texts containing more imaginative prose and poetry of literary merit. Literature and music were added to the elementary school curriculum. In the secondary schools more time was spent on literature, modern languages, and science; and there was a widening choice of optional subjects. In 1871 the common schools, with the exception of separate schools, were designated "Public Schools" and made free and open to

all.¹ In the same year the grammar schools became high schools. In these, pupils were charged moderate fees or none at all. Enrolment increased nearly 300 per cent during the period, while the general population increased only 50 per cent. The office of Chief Superintendent of Education was discontinued in 1875;² instead, the direction of publicly supported education was placed under a Minister of Education responsible through the Government and Legislature to the people.

42. During the same period there were increased efforts to secure efficiency in instruction in the classroom. Some of these were, unfortunately, governed almost entirely by considerations of cost and were short-sighted and niggardly. In 1871, for example, an attempt was made to raise standards in high schools by using examination results as a basis for distributing legislative grants. The direct consequence, of course, was an increase of pressure and "cram" in these schools. Teachers' journals were filled with examination questions and answers; English literature books were published with two pages of notes for every page of text; pedagogical skill tended to consist only in drilling into the student whatever could be made use of in a test. The scheme was discontinued in 1882, but it was probably influential in raising the written examination to a position of dominance which it was to retain long after 1882.

43. Another illustration of the same attitude may be found in the means adopted to provide training for all teachers. In 1875 less than 25 per cent of the elementary school teachers in service had received professional training. Accordingly, a second training centre, the Ottawa Normal School, was established. This improved the situation, but not sufficiently; and in 1877 the Government devised a plan to staff the elementary schools with teachers who had a minimum of training, at very little cost to the central authority and the employing boards. According to this plan, a non-professional Third Class Certificate was offered on the basis of an examination which could be passed after a year of cramming at high school; in addition, a professional certificate was awarded after 13 weeks' attendance at a county model school. This was a selected elementary school at which the teacher in training secured instruction, advice, and practice under the guidance of the master in charge. Teachers who remained in the profession were required to improve their academic and professional qualifications at high school and normal school, but the effect of this easy entrance into teaching was that more than half the schools of the province became staffed with transients. Teaching tended to become a mere avenue to other occupations. After 1872 the number of women teachers began to exceed the number of men. Moreover, the county-model-school plan resulted in too great a

¹*An Act to Improve the Common and Grammar Schools of Ontario*, 34 Vict., Ch. 33, Sec. 1, S.O., 1870-71.

²*An Act Respecting the Education Department of Ontario*, 39 Vict., Ch. 16, S.O., 1875-76.

supply of teachers; and, as a consequence, salaries declined and even enlightened boards in prosperous communities were tempted to offer the lowest prevailing rates.

44. In spite of changes, good or bad, that occurred in education in the name of progress or economy, the school system developed in the mould which had been designed by Egerton Ryerson. For example, there had been various divisions of elementary schools into classes and grades in the 25 years before 1870, but in the following decade the four-book, or eight-grade, scheme became the accepted pattern. Similarly, there were two distinct courses in the high schools when the period began; subsequently, an increasing number of subjects were made optional for different graduation examinations. But in the nineties a unified high school programme was designed to lead to a unified set of examinations, and "matriculation" became the gold standard of educational currency. One may look back to the last 30 years of the nineteenth century and find many other archetypes of the educational machinery of today. There is, indeed, from an educational point of view, good reason for regarding "the period of consolidation" as falling within these years.

45. In 1890 the population of Ontario was roughly 2,114,000. There were 5,700 public schools and more than 8,000 teachers. Almost half a million pupils were enrolled, of whom about a quarter of a million were in attendance on an average day. There were also about 260 Roman Catholic separate schools with 35,000 pupils on the roll. Graded elementary schools were operating in towns and cities, and kindergartens were established in some city schools. The one-room rural school, of brick or frame construction, was, however, the most common type. In most places the elementary school was open for the full school year of 208 days. About seven-eighths of the pupils progressed as far as the fourth reader (grades VII and VIII). Two-thirds of the teachers were women.

46. During any one day in an average public elementary school of 1890, all the pupils studied the three R's; nearly all engaged in drawing; two-thirds were taught geography, grammar, and composition; about a third learned some Canadian history, drill and calisthenics, music, and hygiene; and about one-quarter spent some time on English history. These ratios varied in different schools. They were affected by the number of grades in which a subject was taught and by the fact that rural schools did not offer all subjects. They do not reflect the proportionate time allotted to any subject, but they do give some indication of content and emphasis in the elementary school programme. About a fifth of the pupils in the fourth-book classes remained for a year or so to study commercial work and mathematics—and sometimes science—in the fifth book.

47. By way of the entrance examination a highly selected group of pupils entered the high schools and collegiate institutes. In 1890-91, only 22,000 of 85,000 pupils in the fourth book wrote either the December or

July entrance examination, and only 12,000 passed. Moreover, of the 19,400 enrolled in the secondary schools, nearly 15,000 were in the first form and about 3,600 in the second. There were only 772 in the third and 85 in the fourth form, and about 500 might be expected to matriculate, most of them with junior matriculation from the third form. Those who received commercial certificates were more than four times as numerous as those who matriculated; and more than one student in four left high school to become a teacher.

48. The 31 collegiate institutes were substantial institutions, invariably equipped with libraries and scientific apparatus. They had an average enrolment of 300 pupils and employed some specialist teachers. The 89 high schools were about one-third as large. They varied in staff and facilities. The original distinction between a high school and a collegiate institute had been based on the fact that the latter institution had to have at least 60 boys studying Latin, but in the 1880's examination results were made the basis for distinguishing between the two institutions. It seems permissible to describe a typical secondary school as an institution combining the features of a collegiate institute and a high school and to discuss its curricular programme.

49. The typical secondary school of 1891 offered about 24 of the 28 studies listed in the departmental returns, though some studies were merely divisions of subjects. Practically all pupils studied English grammar, composition, and literature; history; geography; arithmetic; and algebra. Two-thirds or more studied reading, spelling, writing, drawing, geometry, and bookkeeping (which included "commercial transactions"). Between 40 and 50 per cent had lessons in French, précis writing, and indexing and had calisthenics or drill. Between 25 and 40 per cent studied Latin, physics, and botany and practised gymnastics. The percentages of students who took chemistry, German, Greek, and trigonometry were 18, 12, 6, and 4, respectively. Vocal music, temperance and hygiene, shorthand, and zoology were taught in a few schools. It must be remembered, of course, that subjects studied by more than 25 per cent of the pupils must have been begun in the first form, in which most of the pupils were enrolled. Of 160 pupils in the typical school, only three would matriculate at the junior level and only one at the senior.

The Twentieth Century

50. In comparison with any previous period, the twentieth century has been marked by large-scale organization in private business and in governmental affairs. Ontario, as the chief industrial province of the country, has perhaps been most affected by the results of mechanization and industrial organization. The developments in industry have inevitably been reflected in changes in the field of education.

51. During the first 40 years of the century, elementary schools showed only a moderate gain in enrolment in proportion to total popula-

tion, but in reality the expansion was greater than it seems. In 1901, when the total population of Ontario was 2,182,947, the number of young people between the ages of 5 and 24 was 904,538; in 1941 the corresponding figures were 3,787,655 and 1,289,424. Thus the potential school population increased in the ratio of three to four; but during the same period, although the enrolment in elementary schools increased only from 459,000 to 534,000, average attendance increased from 262,000 to 478,000. The ratio in this latter case is that of five to nine.

52. At the same time that this increase occurred, the elementary school programme was broadened. In 1904, nature study, art, manual training, and household science were added to the curriculum, although the latter two subjects were provided in only a few schools. Even more important was the introduction of new programmes of study in 1937 and 1938. Although in these the better features of earlier courses were retained, the revision was one of the most revolutionary that has taken place in our educational system. In comparison with the old curriculum, the new one was suggestive rather than prescriptive and flexible rather than uniform and standardized. It gave greater freedom to pupils and encouraged them to participate actively in the school programme. It encouraged selection and enrichment of the content of the courses, at the discretion of the teacher, and provided for group undertakings of the comprehensive, life-situation variety. Emphasis was placed on creative work and aesthetic appreciation, and social studies were encouraged with a view to solving the problems of leisure and citizenship. Teaching became more skilful. Textbooks became more attractive and were better prepared.

53. The expansion of secondary education during the same period was even more striking. In proportion to population, the average attendance of students in all types of secondary schools was three times greater in 1939-40 than at the beginning of the century. Much of this increase was caused by *The Adolescent School Attendance Act*,¹ which became operative in September, 1921, and which raised the upper limit of the compulsory school attendance age, with certain exemptions, to 16 years. Largely as a result, the average daily attendance in all secondary schools almost doubled between 1919-20 and 1924-25. Some of the increase was also caused by a rapid growth in vocational education, stimulated by grants from the Federal Government. The average daily attendance in vocational courses rose from 2,771 in 1919-20 to 35,130, in 1939-40, but the majority of secondary school students continued to be enrolled in collegiate institutes, high schools, and continuation schools.

54. The secondary school curriculum, like that of the elementary schools, was modified to fit the times. Substantial changes in the whole field of secondary education were instituted in 1921 and subsequent years. The major innovations were: enforcement of *The Adolescent School Attendance Act*; abolition of fees; increased legislative grants and other changes

¹9 Geo. V, Ch. 78, S.O., 1919.

in financing; revision of courses of study; and a radical transformation of the examination system. The traditional course of the secondary schools was reduced to five years by making upper school a one-year instead of a two-year course, and the lower and middle school programmes were reduced to a minimum of five and a maximum of eight subjects in each year. The courses were divided into obligatory and optional subjects; only a limited number of subjects were prescribed; and the optional list became extensive through permission granted to local school boards to add subjects that appeared to meet local needs.

55. At the same time the rigidity of the examination system was relaxed by a series of changes. As an alternative to departmental examinations, recommendation of candidates by the principal of the school was introduced—in 1923 for lower school, in 1932 for middle school, and in 1935 for upper school standing. The purpose was to give the school and the teacher, in relation to the various subjects, greater freedom to determine the content and placement of emphasis. The lower school and middle school departmental examinations were later abolished, but in 1939-40 recommendation for upper school standing was discontinued and all upper school students were required to pass a departmental examination. Requirements for university entrance were relaxed, thereby giving greater freedom in the arrangement of courses in secondary schools. In addition, the former first year of the Arts Course of the University of Toronto was discontinued in 1931-32 and, in effect, was transferred to collegiate institutes and high schools.

56. The twentieth century witnessed another related development of great significance. This was the rapid expansion of vocational education at the secondary school level, referred to above. The number of pupils in vocational schools and courses increased between the two World Wars from a negligible proportion to 30 per cent of the total secondary school enrolment. Vocational education began as a result of *The Industrial Education Act*¹ of 1911, was continued by the Vocational Education Acts of 1921² and 1930,³ and was co-ordinated with apprenticeship training through apprenticeship classes by Acts of 1921² and 1928.⁴ The vocational courses were successfully made general and at the same time practical. However, some educationists, whose main interest was to increase the number of students who completed their education in the secondary school, opposed the segregation of the new vocational courses. A conflict arose between proponents of vocational and academic subjects. Happily the conflicting views were largely reconciled during the latter part of the period under review.

57. With the expansion of elementary and secondary education came an enlargement of the responsibilities of the administrative bodies and of the schools. In 1909, for example, the Department of Education began to

¹1 Geo. V, Ch. 79, S.O.

²11 Geo. V, Ch. 90, S.O.

³20 Geo. V, Ch. 64, S.O.

⁴18 Geo. V, Ch. 25, S.O.

provide summer courses for teachers. At first these were offered to a few teachers of special subjects such as art, agriculture, and physical training; but by the beginning of the Second World War they were available to well over 6,000 teachers in a variety of fields. In 1930¹ the appointment of elementary school inspectors, except in a number of urban centres, was assumed by the central authority, and in recent years an expanded programme has made necessary the appointment of provincial directors and assistants in fields which are new or have recently become more important. Larger provincial grants have been made in an effort to secure equity in educational opportunity throughout the province; these covered about 13 per cent of approved school costs in 1900, 20 per cent in 1930, 25 per cent in 1943, and approximately 40 per cent in recent years. Nor has the administration of education remained unchanged; on the contrary, it has been largely transformed in much of the province through the establishment of township school areas for elementary education and larger high school districts for secondary education.

58. New activities and new points of contact between the schools and society may be illustrated by the development of Junior Red Cross and Home and School Associations, which grew to prominence in the interval between the two World Wars, and by the growth of interest in schools as community centres. Schools have also extended their responsibilities in religious education and in educational and vocational guidance.

59. At the same time there has been a steady increase in the assistance offered to all types of students. Early in the century, free textbooks were provided in the public schools of several cities, and in 1904,² in order to extend this service, special grants were made available to rural schools. Quite recently, Dominion-Provincial Student-Aid Bursaries were introduced to supplement the scholarships offered by the universities. The Federal Government has established family allowances and has also helped to support large numbers of veterans during their university careers. A beginning has been made in school care for the health of the child. Following to some extent the example set by England after the Boer War, Ontario in 1907 gave permissive power to school trustees to provide and pay for medical and dental inspection. After the First World War, grants were offered toward the cost of such inspection, and city boards were empowered to offer treatment for minor defects. At the present time, about two-thirds of the children in the elementary grades are in schools where some type of health service is provided, in most cases under unit or local boards of health.

60. Many educators believe that such services and assistance should be increased. England, it is said, has gone much further in providing health services. In parts of the United States the proportion of young

¹20 Geo. V, Ch. 63, Sec. 10, S.O.

²4 Edw. VII, Ch. 29, S.O.

people in high school and college is greater than in Ontario. It is somewhat disquieting to discover from the census figures of 1941 that the number of people in Ontario with from one to four years of schooling is 75 per cent greater than the number with 13 years or more. In our schools today there are about half as many pupils in grade X as in grade VII or grade VIII, and there are about half as many in grade XII as in grade X. There is compulsory attendance to the age of 16 years, subject to certain exemptions. In spite of this, there are only about four-fifths as many pupils aged 15 as there are aged 14; at age 16 this proportion drops to nearly one-half; and at age 17 it drops to less than one-third. These facts suggest that the lengthening which has occurred in the minimum period of schooling is largely the result of compulsory attendance; leaving school is, for many students, an escape; it occurs because of disinterest or economic necessity, or because of the attitude of the parent. Some educators have suggested that, at present, the most difficult lesson to be learned about education is that the criterion of quantity has served its purpose with the establishment of free elementary and secondary education for all the children of all the people, and that the need today is for quality reckoned in terms of the value to the pupil and of the excellence of the teacher. Others argue that the great problem is to extend school services and financial assistance to such an extent that no child will be deprived of his opportunity for a full education and at the same time to strengthen a sense of responsibility in pupil and parent. Is it possible now, many educators ask, to obtain such appreciation of education by the pupil and the public that there will be no longer any need to make length of schooling alone one of the main objectives for which we have to strive?

CHAPTER II

AIMS OF EDUCATION

1. Education is everybody's business. In our society we all go to school; and later most of us have children in whose education we are particularly interested. No one can be entirely indifferent to the processes whereby young people learn to feel, to think, to behave, and to act. Our schools, together with the two other essential institutions, the home and the church, are directly charged with the grave responsibility of educating our youth.

2. Nearly everyone has opinions about education. Persons who have little knowledge of the subject make strong and sweeping statements about what the schools should do. Experienced educators and thoughtful parents are usually more cautious, since they realize the difficulty of applying any one theory or any one practice under all circumstances and to all young people. They have studied the views of others with an open mind and have come to appreciate the reasons for views which modify or are contrary to their own. For example, uninformed persons may say, "Freedom is folly—children should be disciplined," or "Discipline depraves—children should be free." Both views are at the same time right and wrong. Neither offers exclusively more than an obvious half-truth and proof of personal bias. But the thoughtful person searches for a formula that will reduce the error and enlarge the truth of both statements. It will be a workable formula, flexible enough for adaptation within broad limits to different situations and different personalities.

3. This chapter on the aims of education is a record of our efforts to think through and express in simple terms some of the more general problems of education. An attempt will be made, firstly, to sketch the bases for various educational philosophies or theories; secondly, to identify fundamental issues in education; thirdly, to discuss certain cardinal virtues; fourthly, to consider the force of habits, customs, and conventions; fifthly, to outline the general scope of the curriculum; sixthly, to deal with the role of the teacher; seventhly, to make reference to the development of the whole child; and finally, to set forth nine aims of education.

BASES FOR VARIOUS EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHIES OR THEORIES

4. We shall refer to only two main schools of thought, commonly designated as "the traditional" and "the progressive". To identify them, we may think of the traditionalist as one who believes in strict discipline and the mastering of school subjects, and of the progressive as one who puts emphasis on interest and learning by experience. But in practice no educator is an exclusive traditionalist or progressive. This twofold classification, moreover, is complicated by other divisions. Religious conviction, for example, may affect or determine one's educational philosophy. Frequently, too, those who support a particular practice in education are quite unaware of the assumptions on which their statements are based. Hence, the same individual may urge teachers to do things which are contradictory in their educational implications. We can therefore get little enlightenment from a classification of the schools of educational thought unless we first try to understand why people think as they do.

5. As suggested above, some people are influenced more consistently than others by anything which has deep personal significance for them. Nearly everyone holds his own life dear, has loved-ones whom he regards with peculiar affection, and sets a special value on his own possessions. But people vary in the degree of their personal attachment, especially when the list is extended to ideas, habits, and institutions: the church and tenets of faith; the school attended and type of schooling received; one's native or adopted country; and any way of doing things that has brought success or satisfaction. Indeed, we may bring to mind a person who warmly defends any opinion he has expressed, and becomes even more heated and obstinate when the arguments of others reveal the weakness of his own position.

6. Life without warmth of feeling would not be life as we know it. Moreover, because of our limitations, our irrational passions, and our mistakes, we are compelled frequently to face crises and tragedies in which only the strength of our faith will sustain us. A glorious illustration of faith is to be found in the qualities which enabled Churchill and Britain to save democracy when cold reason might have demonstrated that their cause was lost.

7. With this background, it is not difficult to understand why some people are insistent that a greater effort should be made in school to ensure a passionate love of country, strong personal attachment to established ways of living, knowledge and appreciation of cultural achievements, and acceptance of recognized values and articles of faith. Strict discipline is frequently demanded because it is needed to achieve these specific ends.

8. Let us now consider another viewpoint. There are persons who are influenced less than others by the current scene. They are more impressed by change, and they see little reason for regarding the external form of anything as permanent or as constantly valid. Some of them, however,

may see more or less constancy in the ideas and ideals of which these forms are an expression; they may believe that it is possible to state precisely what these enduring ideas or values are. Those who hold this view are almost certain to be strong supporters of existing institutions as embodiments of these verities, and their views on education are likely to be similar to those described in the foregoing paragraph. Many others, however, are reluctant to assert the universal or abiding truth of any belief, principle, or criterion of value. They regard it as self-evident that learning is essential to life, and they assume that free access to facts and ideas, and the disclosure of full information, are at once rights and obligations. But they do not believe that it is possible to make any general statement that must always be accepted by others as true. They may assume that fullness of life is good, and that what restricts or curtails life is bad. They refuse, however, to prescribe any set pattern of living for others, or to limit the meaning of "good" or "bad" by prescribed rules of conduct. From their assumptions it may follow that deception and violence are wrong and that honesty and equity are right. But they prefer not to speak in terms of "should" and "ought", or "sin" and "evil", because they believe that values have meaning for others only as they arise in experience and operate in practice.

9. It is apparent that those who profess these latter ideas are optimistic about the ability of people to find a way of living and to work out a solution to human problems. They have confidence in democracy as an ideal, or way of life, but they do not believe in a dominant attachment to any existing institution or ideal. They see less need for steadfastness, loyalty, and courage, than for resourcefulness to meet new situations. They are impressed by the achievements of science in the relatively brief period that investigation of the natural world has been unhampered by fixed beliefs and other controls of authority. Hence, they declare that it is not only desirable but imperative that men should be similarly free to work out a solution for peaceful living in national and international societies, and that no cherished pattern of thinking should be allowed to stand in the way. They contend that the record of scientific victories over disease is sufficient evidence for believing that hardships and disasters such as poverty and war are not inevitable, provided the minds of men are freed from prejudice and other restraints against intelligent action.

FUNDAMENTAL ISSUES IN EDUCATION

10. Once this point of view is understood, it becomes clear why some people have a concept of education basically different from that of others. Instead of insisting on a knowledge of history, civics, and national literature to inculcate patriotism, they would have pupils investigate modern problems in social studies in order to extend their understanding of the world. Instead of requiring acceptance by young persons of values, beliefs,

and modes of behaviour, they would encourage critical and honest inquiry in every field. They would rely chiefly on the inherent interest of students in their work, and they would allow the learners to discipline themselves. In their opinion, no subject or organized scheme of knowledge should be held to be of value in itself. They maintain that the important thing in the learning situation is what happens to the learner and that, unless the pupil sees a genuine need for learning what is taught, he may acquire notions and attitudes decidedly at variance with the course of study and the teacher's intentions. It is as vain, they say, to expect that insistence on memory of organized facts will result in predictable knowledge and wisdom as it is to think that mental gymnastics in a subject such as mathematics will train the mind to cope with any problem of life. Accordingly, they contend that the school should broaden its scope to provide for the full development of the whole child and to meet the needs of different individuals. From this point of view, the content and the method of instruction should have all the vitality of out-of-school experience; for learning is the reconstruction of experience and not merely the memory of facts and mastery of skills.

11. When one appreciates the strength of the reasons for thinking about life and education in these different ways, and is tolerant enough to understand views with which he does not agree, he will not resort to sweeping denunciations of either the traditional or the progressive point of view.

12. One of the most difficult of the problems basic to all educational thought is the relationship between the individual and society. It has always been a vexed question, and it cannot be solved in all its details for all time. No one can, however, make useful pronouncements on the aims of education without adopting some definite position in regard to it. Has the individual a right to respect as an individual? How much freedom for the individual, and what kinds of freedom, are compatible with the requirements of society? How much authority, and what kinds of authority, in society and social institutions are reconcilable with individual freedom? Is the authority of society the basic right and the worth of the individual of secondary importance?

13. The individual has a right to respect and freedom as one who shares in the dual heritage of the Western World. Respect for the individual has a basis in Christianity and Judaism, and freedom of thought has a basis in our intellectual heritage from Greece. The authority of society is a necessity, but certainly not a right to be expanded arbitrarily. The authority of society should be definitely maintained, but only within the necessary minimum limits. Educationally, this means a general approval of a programme for personal development, and a resolution to keep obligatory requirements of subject matter and other external controls on the school and pupil within

the limits of what is truly essential. The following paragraphs set forth more exactly the educational implications of this position.

14. There are few educators who would not agree that the schools should be concerned, above everything else, with the kind of person they are helping to produce. We should never forget that the verb “to educate”, as defined in the *Concise Oxford Dictionary*, means “to give intellectual and moral training”. It is the duty of the school to aid its pupils to develop strength of character. Knowing the evil that sharp intellects, unsupported by moral foundations, have wrought in recent years in many countries, we make no apology for discussing first the second prong of the definition—“to give . . . moral training”. We do not believe, however, that education is on the horns of the awful dilemma of choosing between first-class brains and second-class characters on the one hand and, on the other, second-class brains and first-class characters. In character formation, the problem is to determine the extent to which society should go in demanding conformity to approved patterns of thought and behaviour. If the school and other institutions were to give no direction or assistance to boys and girls, the anticipated result would be moral chaos. Less obviously, but no less truly, if we go too far in insisting that youth concur entirely in the views of their elders, we may expect continued dependence and weakness in moral fibre. The school itself cannot move far, in either direction, from examples set elsewhere by adult society. To be much more exacting is to encourage lip-service and hypocrisy. To give much more freedom is to invite disaster. Moreover, individual pupils differ in this respect no less than in mental ability, although the cause may more often be found in parental attitudes than in native endowment. Some young people are ready to accept any statement without question, prefer to be told what to do, and need to be compelled to do it. Others show, in varying degrees, more independence in thought and more willingness and ability to accept responsibility. Since adults differ in their attitudes and in their powers of self-appraisal, they may err by advising what suits themselves and not what is suitable for a younger generation. It follows that we must be careful in our recommendations to allow discretion to individual principals and teachers. Our hope is that they will have the sensitivity and wisdom to see and do the best that may be done in particular circumstances.

CARDINAL VIRTUES

15. There are two virtues about which there can be no question—honesty, and Christian love. They reflect the intellectual and religious heritage of Western Civilization. Honesty means truthfulness and fair dealing, which are the very foundations of freedom. Christian love means kindness and consideration for others, which are mandatory by the Golden Rule. Honesty and love must be taught by precept and even more by example, as absolute

rights, or eternal verities, which everyone must accept, defend, and strive to practise. To insist on their acceptance will do no violence to the conscience of any child or parent. No earnest Christian or Jew, or sincere adherent of any other enduring faith or philosophy of intelligence and good will, could have conscientious scruples regarding these two virtues. They may be taught whole-heartedly and without reservation.

16. Without honesty, society disintegrates. Fair dealing is the indispensable basis of community life. Truthfulness and respect for truth, no less than free access to truth, are essential to the operation of democracy and to the safeguarding of democracy against false doctrines which may threaten to overthrow it. Without love of our fellow-men life is not worth living. There is need for more consideration toward those with whom we come into immediate contact, and need for more consideration toward those who will be affected less directly but no less surely by our beliefs and our practices. There is a warning to the world in the recent spread of ideologies under which kindness is weakness and pity is evidence of guilt. For the preservation of our society the school must teach honesty and Christian love.

17. But the school must not be content with theory. It must teach honesty and love in practice, and thus educate for service to one's fellow-men, to one's country, and to God. As the pupil recognizes the obligation to be honest, he must give value in his work and in every transaction. Because he recognizes the obligation of love, he must seek to translate it into action. Whether in relation to one other person, to several persons, or to all—whether at home, at school, in business, or as a citizen—he must fulfil this dual obligation to the best of his ability. In his education, the school must help him not only to understand and to accept these obligations, but also to acquire the disposition, the will, and the ability, to live daily by the application of this divine precept.

18. In teaching these universal values the school cannot work alone. The enemy of honesty and love in action is the ubiquitous demon named selfishness. The church, in particular, must build and continuously strengthen the spiritual foundations of the basic virtues. The home must provide security for their growth in understanding and practice. School, home, and church should stand together to counteract more effectively those influences in society which offer rewards for selfishness. Gradually, the whole social environment of future generations may then perceptibly improve as an educative agency. A century ago, when formal education for all boys and girls was about to become a reality, there were optimistic predictions that the gaols would be empty when the schools were filled. If progress to date has been slow, the lessons to be learned are that the school has partly failed in this regard, that it is not the only instrument of education, and that it cannot achieve its high purpose without assistance. In an age of specialization it is easy to forget a truism of the ancients that everything in the life

of the community is a teacher. The school must seek every ally if it is to prove that falsehood and deceit, selfishness and violence, are wrong; that truthfulness, fair dealing, and love are right; and that what is sometimes called self-sacrifice is voluntary service by those who understand the obligations of freedom.

19. Honesty and Christian love are the absolutes of a free society. They may therefore be taught by the strongest means at the school's command—an explicit acceptance that they are right. If this be indoctrination we accept the stricture.

20. From the basic concepts of honesty and love there flow other cardinal virtues. Lord Elton refers to some of these in his book entitled *St. George or the Dragon*:¹ "They are the basis of civilisation itself—loyalty, courage, endurance, discipline . . . they can all be reduced to a single quality—unselfishness." He describes them as the military virtues, but he does not mean that they represent militarism: he believes that militarism adapts them to its own use. They may, indeed, be distorted in pursuit of unworthy ends, or be carried too far in obedience to arbitrary authority, as may be seen all too clearly in the evidence of the Nuremburg trials, and in the confessions nearer home of blind adherents to Communism. It is imperative that the young citizen of a democracy be trained to exercise these virtues with critical judgment. His loyalty will have the strength of sincerity if he voluntarily accepts the object as good after thorough and frank investigation. His loyalty, courage, endurance, and discipline should be related to purposes which he has found by his own experience to be desirable. The aim should be not merely to overcome weakness but, from discrimination, to develop strength. As intimated above, the pursuit of truth must be a main purpose of education in a democracy. We cannot allow our youth to mouth, without regard to their own ideas or convictions, the dogmas or clichés prescribed by some *gauleiter* or *commissar* under a totalitarian regime.

THE FORCE OF HABITS, CUSTOMS, AND CONVENTIONS

21. As distinct from these and other cardinal virtues, there are habits, customs, and conventions, of the society in which the school is placed. What balance should be struck between the enforcement of the mores of the community and the moral development of the child?

22. On this question, we believe that the school should, in effect, declare to the younger generation: "These are the standards and rules of conduct of the society to which we belong. Some you will recognize as unquestionably right, binding at all times on all of us, and therefore to be followed regardless of consequence. About others there will be disagreement. Some of these you should examine carefully to see where and how they should apply, some you will have to accept tentatively as right until you are in a

¹Lord Elton, *St. George or the Dragon*, London: Collins, 1942, pp. 24-25.

position to decide for yourself. But, in every case, whatever other sanction they may have, these are rules which most people have declared to be necessary for living together. They make our way of living possible. Therefore, even where there is no clear issue of absolute right and wrong, everyone is obliged to obey these rules or pay the penalty of social disapproval. It is true that some people do not follow all of them. But no one can afford to do things of which others disapprove unless and until he has gained their approval in other ways. For a young person to begin life with the handicap of social disapproval is like entering a swimming race with a heavy weight on one's back. Those in charge of this school are bound to tell you about these standards and rules of conduct, and to insist that you learn at the beginning to live in the way that society approves and not in a way that will certainly be to your disadvantage and that, indeed, may be disastrous."

23. To some people, the balance here may appear to be weighted heavily on the side of conformity. The point of view does, indeed, clearly recognize the advantages of group life. The safety and happiness of each is dependent on the rest of the community. Man flowers not in isolation but in a garden of his fellows. The freedom which he asserts for himself he must accord to his fellow-men. More than that, there are two corollaries to this principle of conformity which must be given equal emphasis.

24. In the first place, there can be no insistence that the pupil accept as right or true what he does not truly believe. The school does not tell the pupil that t-h-r-o-u-g-h is the most desirable or only possible way of spelling "through". It tells the pupil that this is the way it is spelled and that, whether he thinks it a good way or not, he must learn to spell it in that way. Similarly, with exceptions already noted, when the school teaches a code of conduct it says to the pupil that this is what people or institutions declare to be right or desirable. Meticulous regard for truth is the very core of education. We have said that in our society people have a right to think and that young people must be taught to think. About this there can be no reservation. The school may honestly see to it that young people have every opportunity to become thoroughly familiar with what we believe to be good. It may strive to sustain the "habitual vision of greatness". But it cannot cheat, and it should not use force or artifice of any kind to restrict the pupil's search for truth. The pupil may be required to conform in conduct. He must not be required to relinquish his right to freedom of thought. He must reconcile, in his own mind and in his own conscience, the worth of the individual and the claims of his group.

25. In the second place, the requirement of strict conformity with codes of conduct must be reduced as rapidly as the pupil can assume responsibility. There is no absolute or unlimited right to freedom in action. Such freedom as any of us has was gained and kept by proof of ability to use it, either by our forefathers or by ourselves. But the capacity to take responsi-

bility can only be acquired and extended by practice. The educator must therefore be prepared to take some risks, and must be in a sufficiently strong position to share the blame for his pupils' mistakes. The better his reputation as a teacher in other respects, the further he will dare to go. He must extend the scope of pupil responsibility gradually and judiciously. He may be able to do disappointingly little if the home does not co-operate or if the community is strongly prejudiced. But, under favourable circumstances, young people of 16 years of age should have arrived at the point where they can decide and carry out their own decisions on such matters as the time to be given to work and to recreation, and the money to be spent on clothing, minor necessities, or amusements. Many teachers will think it a counsel of perfection to say that pupils of 16 should be able, individually and collectively, to work without compulsion and to make, obey, and enforce, appropriate rules of behaviour. But every teacher knows that some pupils can do it. Education worthy of the name must aim always to enlarge the opportunities for pupils to assume responsibility. This is the practical counterbalance to the initial almost complete conformity which adults are obliged to impose on infants.

26. Here is a major part of the secret which enables a good school to combine order and decorum with a sense of latitude and ease conducive to self-determination, self-control, and voluntary co-operation. There is respect for authority, there is respect for the cardinal virtues, and there is respect for the pupil. We have endeavoured to explain our stand with respect to the basic issue of freedom and authority in education. The next step is to apply these principles—and especially the concept of responsibility—to other educational problems.

THE GENERAL SCOPE OF THE CURRICULUM

27. We now come to the first part of the definition of the verb "to educate"—"to give intellectual . . . training". Before we set forth certain aims for the schools, it may be well to discuss some general problems relative to building the curriculum. Firstly, there is the conflict between emphasis on factual knowledge and basic skills and the development of attitudes, interests, and general abilities. There has never been a decade without critics to lash the elementary school for failure to teach the three R's as effectively as in the golden age to which the particular critic belonged. The charge that there has been deterioration is false, unless the school is to be blamed for accepting and retaining all children regardless of ability. It is true, however, that people have been, and still are, by no means as well grounded in fundamentals as political, social, and economic efficiency require. What is the cause?

28. The chief cause, in our opinion, is that the school is driven to demand too much from its pupils. Instead of discriminating between the minimum that is necessary and the copious variety that may be desirable,

the adult is carelessly lavish in his demands on the young. No wonder youth gives up trying to please and becomes reconciled to its elders' disappointments.

29. The first step away from this maladjustment of ends and means should be to limit the requirements imposed on the pupil in the name of society. This means defining in minimum terms what society must require everyone to be able to do. It must require, we may assume, at least that pupils be able to use the ordinary means of communication to the extent employed in everyday affairs. The next step is to translate this minimum necessity into curriculum requirements that every ordinary young person can meet within the school, and to teach for mastery, not mere proficiency. If this were done, the school would be invulnerable to the charge of failure to teach simple spelling and arithmetic and the ability to use and understand direct and simple English, provided the skills so taught and required are indeed ordinarily used, and are not abilities infrequently employed and forgotten through disuse before they are needed in special circumstances. Is that all the school should teach? Of course not. But it is all that should be required for every pupil.

30. In addition, there are various desirable fields of interest and appreciation in the world of ideas, in the arts, and in physical activities. In these enrichments of life, there should be wide freedom of choice if interest and appreciation are to be deep-seated and abiding. The imposition of examinations, and teaching which insists on "the one right way", may stifle the growth of the attitudes and general abilities we hope to develop. In later adolescence, however, the student may be obliged to submit himself, even in these fields, to the stricter discipline of scholarship or to the exacting requirements of technical skill.

31. Between the small enclosure of necessary skills and the broad range of varied interests, is the middle ground where obligation and freedom must blend. Typical of its content, and most important, is anything connected with human relations, such as knowledge and appreciation of values in life from history and literature, or abilities acquired by practice in living, working, conferring, deciding, and acting together. In this middle ground, stipulated requirements and examinations on the one hand, and freedom on the other, must be applied or granted with equal discretion. At this point, the pupils' concept of responsibility and the sensitivity and wisdom of their teachers are of the utmost significance.

32. To an increasing degree pupils should be able, as they mature, to choose their reading material and, in social studies, to carry on their own investigations, conduct their own conferences, and keep their own records. In all subjects and activities they should grow in capacity to evaluate their own achievement. As powers such as these are acquired, the need for external pressure grows less and less.

33. The foregoing leads us to another question. Should we think of the school programme in terms of organized subject matter, or in terms of educative experience? If there is room for both, where and when should a place be given to each? In present practice, the experience concept has successfully invaded the kindergarten and primary grades of the elementary school, but has gained less and less recognition in successively higher grades. By grade VII, if not before, teacher and pupil have little time for thinking of life situations in school, and must address themselves for most of the day to the study of subject matter organized in separate categories. Soon the transition is all but complete. The motivation has changed from an interest in life and a desire to learn something obviously worth while, to a desire to please, or to escape trouble, by learning something which the teacher says has value. In experience, one sees a bit of life with all its varied elements, and learning takes place in terms of the whole. In teaching a subject, it is usual to concentrate repeatedly on isolated elements, although there may be some provision for learning as a whole if the approach to a topic be comprehensive, as in the unit method.

34. The teaching of subjects ensures that the child learns at least something of the accomplishments of men in the past, of current practice, and of facts or values, arranged in an accepted pattern. The definite character of a subject enables both teacher and pupil to get satisfaction from measurable achievement. This is especially true where the content is precise, as in spelling and arithmetic, or in mathematics and science, or in subjects where the content is remote from ordinary life and entirely new, as in English grammar and foreign languages. It is progressively less true of social studies, English composition, English literature, music, and art, even if they be taught for technical purposes. Yet such is the comfort derived from marks as seemingly tangible evidence of effort and achievement, that the temptation is to accept the faith of the realist that "everything exists in some quantity and can be measured". The pedagogical conscience gives the teacher an uneasy feeling that time is being frittered away unless the pupils have acquired something which a test will reveal. Consequently, a history teacher, for example, may give more time and emphasis to content which can easily be organized and measured by examinations than to content of a more subtle nature, no matter how significant the latter may be.

35. It would be rash indeed, in connection with this perplexing problem, to suggest any radical departure from the established trend. We do urge later, however, a less sudden shift away from the experience concept. At the time of early adolescence there should be experimentation during part of the school day with educative experience other than the study of designated subject-matter or the acquirement of physical skills. Subjects of study should receive increasing emphasis through the school years, and should occupy nearly all the time of students after approximately the age of 16.

We frankly declare, at this point, our conviction that mastery of subject-matter is the best present measure of effort and the most promising source of satisfaction in achievement. We are not unduly concerned that a proportion of school tasks should be hard and unpalatable, because much of life is equally so. Yet, we are favourably disposed to a prudent extension of practices based on the experience concept, as a previous observation in this paragraph has shown. Perhaps if more can be taught that way in school, life itself will be made less difficult, and the method will be better adapted to life.

THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER

36. At present there is one handicap to significant advance. The professional and personal qualifications of our teachers determine how far one may go in recommending any practice that is difficult and new. It is no slight to the teaching profession, or to any other profession, to admit that only the more capable members are able to employ the more difficult and advanced techniques. But all who employ teachers and all who are responsible for their professional education must ask themselves whether they could not strive harder to enlist the services of men and women of high quality, and to educate them more liberally for a responsibility which can, and should, require both a broad professional knowledge and insight and judgment far above the average. It is one thing to present clearly the organized facts of a subject and to see that they are acquired by pupils and retained by them until the time of examination; it is an altogether different thing to *educate* young people, to recognize subtle differences, to develop responsibility and keen and abiding interests and desirable attitudes. To do the latter requires the use of flexible and comprehensive teaching methods which will help individual pupils toward these objectives, and at the same time ensure adequate competence in knowledge and skill. These methods cannot be taught as a mere technique. The ability to teach in this way is acquired when a person of high personal qualifications is prepared for his profession by a broad education which gives him the resources of educational philosophy and psychology and of much general knowledge and experience, and so enables him to understand the newer methods and to devise procedures suitable for particular purposes and circumstances. A perfect programme might be handed down from some educational Mount Sinai, yet if competent, sensitive, and wise teachers were not available to put it into operation, little would be accomplished.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE WHOLE CHILD

37. There has, in any case, been a meaningful change of emphasis in education during the past 50 years. The traditional school was concerned almost entirely with the teaching of subjects, which were, moreover, almost wholly intellectual, such as reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, grammar,

and geography, in the elementary school, and foreign languages and mathematics in the secondary school. Any thought given to the child was chiefly in relation to his progress in these subjects. During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, there were notable critics of this narrow purpose in education, including Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and Froebel. But there was no widespread adoption of a broader view until the Froebelian movement gained strength at the end of the nineteenth century. In Ontario, James L. Hughes, Chief Inspector of Schools for Toronto, was its chief exponent. Froebelianism stood for the "child-centred" school, and for growth through creative and expressive activity. On this continent, especially, it led to a new concept of education as a process concerned with every aspect of the pupil's growth to maturity or, as it came to be phrased, with the development of the whole child.

38. As a result, the school of today has very much wider and more varied interests than the school of the past. For example, it is interested in the physical health of the child: it provides instruction in health, physical education, and recreational facilities; and it may provide medical and dental inspection, and milk or other supplements to nutrition. Educationists are increasingly aware of the need for good lighting, attractive surroundings, and everything conducive to health as a positive state of well-being. Much has been spoken and written about the glories of the "little old red school-house"; but this school was, in fact, often unattractive and unhealthy. Attractive schools engender a sense of beauty. Good lighting, heating, and ventilation make for better physical and mental health of pupils. Educators are interested now in the emotional life of the child, in the development of desirable interests and attitudes and, though not with complete confidence as yet, in other aspects of mental health. They are concerned about the activity of leisure. They seek to give the child some appreciation of music, art, and the aesthetics of life, and to develop manual and creative skills. They are beginning to give counsel and help of other kinds: guidance programmes have done much to assist the pupil in his choice of a vocation, though little, as yet, to help him in his everyday problems of life. In these and other ways, education for the development of the whole child has become in some degree a reality.

39. It must not be forgotten that these developments owe their existence and vitality to a new philosophy. Too often in education the original impetus of the spirit or idea has been lost, and the end result has been a dried husk of formality. If guidance, for example, should ever become a control over the destiny of the child, imposed with the voice of authority, it would completely defeat its present purpose. The underlying aim of every new movement contributory to the broad programme just described has been to enable pupils to act for themselves. The vitality of this aim is all-important. For the most part, development must take place as an incidental to the progress of the pupil through school. A teacher cannot interrupt a

routine lesson and say, "We shall now turn our attention to your personal growth." Even the provision of subjects and activities directly related to child development is less important than the spirit which pervades the school. For the same reason, everything that has already been said in this chapter has a bearing on what we believe should be sought in education for the growth of the child as a whole.

AIMS

40. In the light of all this discussion, we may now, as promised earlier in the chapter, set forth certain specific aims for our schools. These are not separate and distinct, but interrelated. Our introductory discussion is a necessary prelude to them because we believe that no question relating to the aims of education admits of an answer without a reference to ultimate convictions about human nature and human destiny, and about society and the individual and the fundamental relationship between the two. We believe the aims of education should include the following:

- A. To develop capacity to apprehend and practise basic virtues.
- B. To develop the power to think clearly, independently, and courageously.
- C. To develop talent to understand the views of others and to express one's own views effectively.
- D. To develop competence for a suitable occupation.
- E. To develop good health.
- F. To develop aptitudes for recreation.
- G. To develop characteristics for happy family relations.
- H. To develop good citizenship.
- I. To develop the concept that education is a continuing process beyond the school.

To Develop Capacity to Apprehend and Practise Basic Virtues

41. We reiterate that the two essential allies of the school in this regard are the home and the church. By precept and by example gifted teachers can engender in their pupils certain immutable values accepted, and indeed won, by mankind as the expression of his highest ideals in terms of beauty, truth, and goodness. Mankind has found in the practice of these ideals the deepest satisfaction as he seeks to serve his fellow-men, his country, and his God. The importance of the individual and the significance of his obligations, which form part of our spiritual heritage, are the foundations of our democratic society. The meaning of life is made manifest in adherence and obedience to ideals that lie outside oneself and that transcend one's personal interests. Inspiration and aspiration are never self-centred. Without proclaiming any creed or doctrine we know that in our democracy the Christian ideals as personified and exemplified by Jesus have an appeal to all persons of good will, and are the surest common ground for an edu-

cational programme related to the pupil as a person. The attitude of Jesus toward children, His understanding of human nature and behaviour, His charity and loving kindness toward all men, form a perfect model for a true democracy in the classroom, the community, and the nation.

To Develop the Power to Think Clearly, Independently, and Courageously

42. Power to think clearly, independently, and courageously is the result of intellectual and moral development. A boy or girl may be a storehouse of facts and yet be uneducated. Power to relate, to analyze, to synthesize, and to think logically is the distinguishing mark of the human race. For earning a living and for discharging the duties of citizenship and other personal obligations in a democracy, this power is sorely needed in the individual who is confronted constantly with social, economic, and political problems, the solution of which will determine the welfare and progress of our society and indeed the very survival of our civilization.

To Develop Talent to Understand the Views of Others and to Express One's Own Views Effectively

43. Schools do not prepare their pupils as one might mould clay figures in an otherwise empty room. Youth must be prepared for effective participation in the affairs of groups, large and small, and of society in general. Groups, and the society which they compose, are only possible if their members are capable of understanding others, and of communicating with them. They need the quality of tolerance, as well as the lucid expression, by each member, of his own opinion, arrived at by clear, independent, and courageous thought. History records that in personal and public communication, misunderstanding and hostility have resulted from the mere inability to communicate adequately true feelings and ideas.

To Develop Competence for a Suitable Occupation

44. The late Lord Tweedsmuir once declared with truth that one must live before one can live well. To have work for which one is ill suited is detrimental to the individual and injurious to society. Although the schools cannot provide a great deal of the practical experience necessary for expertness in any vocation, they can lay the foundations for subsequent occupational proficiency. They have also the responsibility of placing before every pupil the nature of the various callings in which he or she manifests interest, and the opportunities they provide. We encourage vocational guidance; but we are of opinion that teachers should guide only. The decision with respect to one's calling must be made by each adolescent, aided and counselled by his parents, and always with due regard to the probable opportunity for obtaining remunerative employment in any particular field. It should ever be kept before pupils in the secondary school that there are satisfactions in any occupation beyond the amount of the "take-home" pay, however large that may be. Care should be taken to

engender in pupils the need for hard work and for assiduous application to the task in hand. Any false ideas that youth may acquire from some older persons that there may be short-cuts to worthy attainment, without hard work, should be corrected. Moreover, efforts should be made to impress on pupils that all who work hard and honestly, whatever their calling may be, are partners in the good society and warrant social recognition.

To Develop Good Health

45. Directly and indirectly the school may contribute to the individual attainment of this aim. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, attractive and suitable buildings and grounds advance the health of pupils. That they should receive training and practice in healthful living, through health services and by other means in the school, is now properly expected by their parents. It should be emphasized that the concept of good health today connotes not only physical well-being but also mental poise and nervous balance, and professional aid should be available to this end. Thus the teacher, through the development in every pupil of interest and responsibility, may do much to produce a well rounded personality.

To Develop Aptitudes for Recreation

46. "All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy" is an axiom equally applicable to the juvenile, the adolescent, and the adult. Release from the daily routine and re-creation for tomorrow's task are to be found in the proper use of leisure time. Recreational programmes within the school should encompass athletic activities and also opportunities to participate in literary, musical, and other aesthetic activities. Poor in outlook is the man or woman who cannot find outlets for creative enterprises outside the factory, the field, the forest, the mine, the office, or the home. Recreation is a part of good health, physical and mental.

To Develop Characteristics for Happy Family Relations

47. Any idea that children have innate characteristics that will ensure happy family relations is no longer tenable. The school can impart knowledge, develop skills, and inculcate attitudes required for good family life. Directly, by means of courses in home economics, industrial arts, social studies, and natural science, and indirectly, by the teacher's example, the most vital factor in society—the home—may be better undergirded and buttressed against the present current of domestic infelicity, separation, and divorce.

To Develop Good Citizenship

48. Much that was stated in the introductory paragraphs of this chapter is germane to the consideration of this topic. In most of the politics of past centuries only a limited circle of people needed education for the governance of the country. In a democracy everyone participates in some measure

in the role of governor, as he or she contributes to the sovereign will of the people. It should be impressed on pupils that this status not only carries rights but also imposes obligations. That is a lesson that citizens in democracies find it difficult to remember except in periods of national emergency. It is a lesson which must be applied constantly in community, provincial, national, and international affairs. If it is not carefully heeded, it will be relatively easy for demagogues or dictators to take over the reins of government. Students, the citizens of tomorrow, must be warned against sacrificing their democratic birthright to participate in the solution of public problems for empty promises of greater personal security. There can be no assurance of personal benefits to the individual if the people relinquish their power. Large benefits are of little value if they are conferred for selfish purposes by a political or economic master. Opportunity to achieve for oneself is more precious than any totalitarian concession. To be a good citizen one must be informed about the factors involved in any civic, national, or international issue. The citizen must, however, have the wit to draw on the opinion of experts for special or technical knowledge which he does not himself possess. Yet he must make his own final decision after judging the validity of conflicting claims. Great, and indeed paramount, is his responsibility to distinguish reason from emotion, facts from propaganda, and the true from the false. Herein is the compass of all our educational endeavours.

To Develop the Concept that Education is a Continuing Process Beyond the School

49. Sometimes pupils believe that when they leave school their education is complete. There may have been a period when certain gifted individuals had a mastery of all knowledge hitherto discovered by mankind. But that day is past. No person can be a master or expert in many fields. He is bound to be ignorant of many areas of human endeavour and achievement. Care must constantly be taken to inculcate in pupils a sense of intellectual humility, and at the same time to develop within them a thirst for new knowledge. Every pupil should realize that, as one peak of knowledge is surmounted, farther ranges will appear on, and beckon from, the horizon. Not the least part of the intellectual and spiritual endowment that a school may bestow on its pupils is the sense of quest for, and the spirit for discovery regarding, new facts, ideas, and ideals. Schools should be centres for promoting adult education, and educators should be conscious of the necessity for laying the foundation for it during school life.

50. In order to attain these aims, it is necessary to have public support. Surely that support will be forthcoming. Much is said in Canada about our vast natural resources and property. Millions of dollars have been, and are being, poured into their development. It is trite to observe that our main

natural resource is our youth. Yet it remains true that the development and calibre of our youth will determine the Ontario and the Canada of tomorrow.

51. We have reason to be proud of Ontario's educational system. But education must always be on the march in order to meet new conditions. If those who are responsible for our educational system ever believe that it has attained a stage of final perfection, it will have become a crystallized agency for indoctrination.

52. The second half of the twentieth century demands a restatement of aims and proposals. The accomplishment of these will require the mobilization of every possible resource. In our conviction that the people of Ontario will respond to that demand, we believe that their contribution to the support of schools and the shaping of educational policies will advance the commonweal.

53. Finally, we emphasize the need for a wider provision of educational opportunity for children, wherever they may be situated throughout the province. Payments for education are not as tribute to a foreign power, or the exaction of some privileged monopoly, or the imposition of some vested interest. They represent the voluntary investment of a free people to ensure the sway of good will, the prevalence of wisdom, the satisfaction of those who, through equal opportunity, find work in service to their fellow-men, their country, and their God—to ensure, in other words, a better generation to succeed us, and a finer Canada.

CHAPTER III

PROPOSED REORGANIZATION OF ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

1. The attainment of the aims discussed in the previous chapter will mean a somewhat radical revision of our present system of education. We begin with a consideration of compulsory school attendance. This is far from being the most important question we have to consider, but, since school attendance determines the ages and number of children for whom we have to work out the details of our educational system, it may, in some sense at least, be regarded as fundamental.

EXTENSION OF COMPULSORY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

2. When schools were first established and maintained in Upper Canada, in part at least at public expense, attendance of pupils was voluntary, as in other countries. Once the principle of free schools¹ had been accepted and had become generally effective, however, the idea of compulsory attendance at school came to the fore. It seems to have been based on a number of beliefs, constituting an unusual mixture of economic and humanitarian motives: that every child had a right to a common school education; that, in return for his financial support, the taxpayer might justly require that every child be educated; and that it was the duty of the parent to educate his child. As a result of these convictions, the School Law Improvement Act of 1871² included the following modest provision for compulsory attendance:

3. Every child, from the age of seven to twelve years inclusive, shall have the right to attend some school, or be otherwise educated for four months in each year; and any parent or guardian, who does not provide that each child between the ages aforesaid under his care shall attend some school, or be otherwise educated, as thus of right declared, shall be subject to the penalties hereinafter provided . . .

3. It was not until 1881, however, that municipal assessors were required to register all children between the ages of 7 and 13, and school boards

¹Schools financed through revenue derived from local and provincial taxation without recourse to fees.

²*An Act to Improve the Common and Grammar Schools of the Province of Ontario*, 34 Vict., Ch. 33, S.O.

empowered to appoint officers to enforce compulsory attendance. Somewhat later, the length of the period of compulsory school attendance was extended to 100 days each year. But school boards failed to measure up to their responsibility; and even as late as 1886, 23 per cent of the rural population within the compulsory school attendance age attended less than the required 100 days per year. To remedy this, the Truancy Act of 1891¹ was enacted. Full-time attendance for the school term was required of all children between the ages of 8 and 14; exceptions were allowed in cases of sickness or other unavoidable causes, or where the child was excused from attendance by the school principal or a justice of the peace, or where he had passed the high school entrance examination; and penalties were provided, applying to parents and guardians who refused to comply, and to any person who, during the school term, employed a child under the age of 14. Although this legislation brought about a marked improvement in school attendance, the Act was not fully enforced, particularly in rural areas. Hence, in 1919, *The School Attendance Act*² and *The Adolescent School Attendance Act*³ were enacted. They required the appointment of local attendance officers, whose work was to be supervised and co-ordinated by a provincial attendance officer. The general provisions of this legislation are still in effect.

4. Today, *The School Attendance Act* requires that every child between the ages of 8 and 14 attend school for the full term, and responsibility for such attendance is placed on the parent or guardian. General exemptions are provided in cases of sickness or other unavoidable causes, excessive distance from school, insufficient accommodation, and where children are receiving efficient instruction elsewhere, or have passed examinations equivalent to university matriculation or entrance to normal school. Every child between the ages of 5 and 8 who has been registered as a pupil must attend at least during the term in which he is enrolled. Provision is made that a child under the age of 14 be not employed during school hours, except in case of urgent necessity as certified by a school attendance officer, and then for not longer than six weeks during the school term.

5. The present *Adolescent School Attendance Act* requires the full-time attendance of every adolescent between 14 and 16 years of age; and, in municipalities where part-time courses are provided, it requires part-time attendance, for at least 320 hours per year, of those between 16 and 18 years of age. Unfortunately, an extensive and complicated set of exemptions and exceptions largely nullifies these requirements. An adolescent between 14 and 16 years of age is exempted from attendance

- (a) if unable to attend because of sickness, infirmity, or other physical defect;

¹*An Act Respecting Truancy and Compulsory School Attendance*, 54 Vict., Ch. 56, S.O.

²*The School Attendance Act*, 9 Geo. V, Ch. 77, S.O.

³*The Adolescent School Attendance Act*, 9 Geo. V, Ch. 78, S.O.

- (b) if employed on the authority of a home permit or an employment certificate;
- (c) if he has passed the university matriculation examination, or its equivalent;
- (d) if in attendance at some other educational institution approved by the Minister; or
- (e) if his parent or guardian resides in a rural school section, and his services are required in the household, or on the farm.

Adolescents between the ages of 14 and 16 who hold home permits or employment certificates are required to attend part-time courses for at least 400 hours each year, but only when such courses are established in the municipality in which they are employed.

6. An adolescent between the ages of 16 and 18 is exempted from attendance at part-time courses

- (a) if such part-time courses are not provided in the municipality in which he resides or is employed;
- (b) if unable to attend by reason of illness, infirmity, or other physical defect;
- (c) if he has passed the university matriculation examination, or its equivalent;
- (d) if in attendance at a school under the jurisdiction of the Department of Education, or other school approved by the Minister; or
- (e) if he has been under full-time instruction up to age 16.

7. Three specific criticisms relating to the period of compulsory school attendance in Ontario have been submitted in evidence placed before us:

- (1) It is claimed that with modern road conditions and transportation facilities there is no sound reason why the beginning age for the period of compulsory attendance should not be lowered.
- (2) The period of compulsory school attendance terminates at age 16, at which time the average child has partly completed the second stage of education. Thus, the end of the period of compulsory school attendance fails to coincide with a terminal point in the educational programme.
- (3) Owing to the general use of home permits and employment certificates, the upper limit of the period of compulsory attendance is, in effect, lowered for many children by one or two years.

8. Are these criticisms valid? There can be no doubt that, in many countries, particularly since the beginning of the twentieth century, the extension of the period of compulsory school attendance has been rapid. In England, for example, age limits of 5 to 15 years, with provision for an increase to age 16, were established by the Education Act, 1944;¹ in France, an upper age limit of 18 has been recommended. In the United States, compulsory atten-

¹*An Act to Reform the Law Relating to Education in England and Wales*, 7 & 8 Geo. VI, Ch. 31, S.U.K.

dance is enforced to age 14 in three states, to 15 in one, to 16 in thirty-three, to 17 in six, and to 18 in the remaining five states, but the attitude is developing that such variations in compulsory school attendance are no longer justified. In the provinces of Canada other than Ontario there is a variation in the upper age limit of compulsory school attendance; but, in general, in rural areas it is 14, and in urban centres 16.

9. Attendance of our children at school is so much a part of our culture and tradition that we tend to accept it without question. Yet the reasons for it are important. As society became more and more complex, a point was reached where the training secured in the home and through practical experience was not sufficient. The information and skills to be acquired demanded a more formal type of instruction which could be given better in schools. With changes in political organization, such as universal adult suffrage, it became imperative in the interests of society that all citizens possess an essential minimum of education. In pioneer days mere literacy would suffice; but today we live in a highly industrialized province with a complex social organization, in which, if citizens are properly to discharge their duties and responsibilities, a high level of general education for all must be maintained.

10. The reason for the introduction of compulsory school attendance was not only that it served the welfare of society. It is a moot point whether consideration of the welfare of society or of the child was more important in bringing it about. Certainly, the immediate motive in the associated laws relating to child labour and school attendance has been child welfare: employment at too early an age endangers physical welfare; non-attendance at school endangers educational welfare. In any case, for either or both reasons, compulsory school attendance is firmly supported by public opinion in our province.

11. The length of the schooling period merits careful consideration. If a high level of general education is to be maintained, formal schooling must extend over a comparatively long period. Yet, if the period is unduly prolonged, it is quite possible that students, and particularly gifted students, may spend too many of their most productive years in school. This may not be in their best interests or in those of society.

12. Two recent developments also affect the problem. The payment of family allowances on behalf of children under 16 years of age, conditional upon attendance at school, has resulted in greater regularity of attendance, and has made possible attendance for a longer period. On the other hand, the high cost of living after the Second World War and the burden of income and other taxes have tended to reduce the number of years during which some children may remain financially dependent and enjoy education at higher levels. Others have been tempted from school by the high level of wages.

13. How long, then, should the period of compulsory attendance be? From the point of view of the child's welfare and development, the answer appears to be that it should extend from approximately age 6 to about age 16. It is generally agreed that formal instruction in school, more particularly in the fundamental skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic, cannot advantageously be introduced, for the great majority of children, before age 6. At the other end of the scale, the child achieves physiological maturity about age 16; he desires, under normal circumstances, to secure gainful employment; and he may do so without endangering his physical welfare. Moreover, although the evidence is conflicting, it seems probable that his mental ability closely approaches its maximum growth at about that age.

14. From the point of view of the community, the purpose of compulsory school attendance is to ensure a minimum standard of education for all citizens. It follows that the educational system should be organized so that, during the period of compulsory school attendance, all children may secure a well rounded general education, suited to their varying capacities. In our opinion, the minimum educational standard must be sufficiently high to ensure at least

- (a) competence in oral and written English, and an appreciation of our language, life, and culture;
- (b) competence in the fundamentals of mathematics;
- (c) a knowledge of science and social studies adequate for an understanding of our society;
- (d) a habit of clear, objective, and critical thought;
- (e) a knowledge of those ideals of conduct which our society approves and which are based upon the fundamental truths of religion; and
- (f) exploration of various vocational fields in which employment may be later secured.

15. The essential minimum standard of education required of all citizens cannot, we conclude, be secured in less than ten years. Beginning at age 6, the period of compulsory school attendance would thus end at age 16. Many will claim that this period is too short;¹ but we feel that in the existing state of our national economy we cannot at the present time afford to compel all our youth to remain in school after age 16. It is estimated that if the compulsory school attendance age were raised to 18 the total annual cost of education in Ontario, not including the cost to parents of supporting their

¹The conclusion that a longer period of compulsory school attendance is required has been strongly supported in briefs submitted by: The Ontario Agricultural Commission of Inquiry (Brief 1); The Rural Section of the Ontario School Trustees' and Ratepayers' Association, Ontario Educational Association (Brief 12); United Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers of America, C.I.O., District Five Council (Brief 43); The Ontario Provincial Executive and the Executive of the Trades and Labour Congress of Canada (Brief 154); and the Educational Committee of the Ontario Federation of Agriculture (Brief 211).

children, would be increased by at least \$15,000,000. Nor are we convinced that it would be in the best interests of many young persons to keep them in school until this age: they are ready to enter employment; they desire to do so; they may not have the ability to profit from the specialized training which should be given at this stage; and it is doubtful if they would profit appreciably from a forced continuation of general education.

16. We recommend

- (a) *that the period of compulsory full-time school attendance begin for each child on September 1st of the calendar year in which he attains the age of 6 years;*
- (b) *that for each child, subject to the exemptions hereinafter provided, the period of compulsory full-time school attendance extend to June 30th of the calendar year during which he attains the age of 16 years.*

Although the requirements of compulsory full-time school attendance should apply to all children, exemptions must be permitted in exceptional circumstances. Therefore, we recommend

that the requirements for compulsory full-time school attendance be not applicable to any child

- (i) *if he is physically unfit, as certified by a duly qualified medical practitioner;*
- (ii) *if he is ineducable, as certified by an authority designated by the Minister of Education;*
- (iii) *if he resides more than a specified distance from the nearest school which he has the right to attend and no school transportation or other service in lieu thereof is provided;*
- (iv) *if he is under instruction deemed to be efficient and adequate by the Minister of Education; or*
- (v) *if he has obtained the Secondary School Graduation Diploma, as hereinafter defined.*

We recommend also

- (a) *that it continue to be the duty of the parent or guardian of each child whose age falls within the period of compulsory full-time school attendance, and who has not been exempted, to have such child attend school;*
- (b) *that a parent or guardian who neglects or refuses to cause such child to attend school as required incur a specified penalty for non-compliance;*
- (c) *that legislation be enacted to prohibit employment of any child who is, or should be, enrolled in full-time attendance in a school, except before or after school hours or when school is not in session, and then only in such activities as will not be prejudicial to his health or otherwise render him unfit to obtain the full benefit of the education provided for him.*

17. Establishing the limits of the period of compulsory school attendance at ages 6 and 16 will inevitably bring about an increased enrolment. In elementary schools the present shortage of teachers may be aggravated; in secondary schools the need for additional teachers and accommodation will have to be satisfied. The evidence we have received, particularly with reference to rural schools,¹ leads us to believe that our people earnestly desire that adequate educational facilities, in both elementary and secondary schools, should be made available to rural and urban children alike. We realize, however, that major changes in organization, desirable and urgent though they may be, cannot immediately and fully be effected in all areas. We therefore recommend

that, for a limited period immediately following the enactment of legislation lengthening the period of compulsory school attendance, and subject to the permission of the Minister, a local education authority be authorized to defer, on an annual basis, the application of the regulations relating to the compulsory school attendance of children of ages 6, 7, 14, and 15.

PROVISION OF STAGES WITHIN THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

18. The division of the educational system into stages seems to be desirable. In Upper Canada the early common and grammar schools were originally established to meet specific needs, and little thought was given to their systematic organization in relation to each other. There was only slow progress in the direction of a unified system divided into stages which would avoid overlapping in ages and available services. In the latter half of the nineteenth century, however, a pattern began to take shape. Elementary schools, in which were included public and separate schools, became the first stage in the educational system; and secondary schools, consisting of high schools and collegiate institutes, became the second stage. The number of years of formal education offered in each stage varied from time to time; but the common practice came to be an eight-year programme for the first stage, and a five-year programme for the second.

19. Our present elementary school system departs from an eight-year programme in two directions. In the first place, boards of trustees may operate kindergartens for 3-, 4-, and 5-year-old children. In the second place, work of grades IX and X may be provided in the elementary school panel although, where such is the case, the secondary school programme of studies is followed. There is a tendency toward a division or "break" in the elementary school programme² at the end of grade VI. In fact, "Senior Pub-

¹See, in particular, Brief 1 submitted by the Ontario Agricultural Commission of Inquiry, and Brief 211 submitted by the Educational Committee of the Ontario Federation of Agriculture.

²The programme of studies for elementary schools is published in three booklets: *Programme for Junior and Senior Kindergarten and Kindergarten Primary Classes of the Public and Separate Schools*; *Programme of Studies for Grades I to VI of the Public and Separate Schools*; and *Programme of Studies for Grades VII and VIII of the Public and Separate Schools*.

lic Schools” for pupils in grades VII and VIII have been established in some urban centres. The secondary school programme also has divisions. Grades IX and X lead to the Intermediate Certificate; grades IX to XII inclusive, as a unit, lead to the Secondary School Graduation Diploma; and grade XIII leads to the Secondary School Honour Graduation Diploma.

20. The following criticisms, in particular, have directed our attention to the need for revision in the organization of the stages of our educational system:

- (1) The period of time required to complete the elementary and secondary school programme is unnecessarily long. This condition has been aggravated by the frequent addition of content, which has resulted from the inclusion of new subjects without deletion of subject matter in existing courses; by the adoption of teaching methods which are more time-consuming than the old; by the repetition of the content of courses in successive grades; and by the practice of extending the work of grade XIII over two years, or that of grades XII and XIII over three years.
- (2) The division between the two stages of the educational organization occurs at the end of grade VIII, when pupils are about age 14. This break comes almost exactly in the middle of the period of early adolescence, though it should immediately precede this important stage in child development.
- (3) The inclusion, in some centres, of the secondary school courses of studies for grades IX and X in the elementary school panel tends to weaken the coherence of the general programme.
- (4) Integration of the stages of the system is needed. At present the connection between elementary and secondary education is tenuous. Traditionally, secondary education has been associated with higher education and elementary education has been a self-contained and terminal unit for a large number of pupils.

21. In order to help in the evaluation of these criticisms, a special study of educational organization in other countries was made. It was found that in Great Britain, France, South Africa, and New Zealand, and in almost all states and other provinces on this continent, the trend was in the direction of a classification of elementary and secondary education into three or more divisions, roughly corresponding to the major stages of child development. In those countries or areas where a reorganization has been effected, the pattern has been somewhat as follows:

<i>Stage</i>	<i>Length</i>
Nursery and Kindergarten	One to three years
Primary	Six years
Junior Secondary	Three or four years
Senior Secondary, or Senior Secondary and Junior College	Three or four years

Evidence placed before us indicates that reorganization along these lines has proved to be sound.

22. In our own province a similar trend seems to be developing. The organization which is taking shape is as follows:

Level	Ages	Grades
Junior Elementary	{ Three to six	{ Junior Kindergarten
		{ Senior Kindergarten
		{ Kindergarten-Primary
Senior Elementary	{ Six to twelve	Grades I to VI, inclusive
Junior Secondary	Twelve to fourteen	Grades VII and VIII
Senior Secondary	Fourteen to sixteen	Grades IX and X
Advanced Secondary	Sixteen to eighteen	Grades XI and XII
	Eighteen to nineteen	Grade XIII
	(Eighteen to twenty)	

The stages of child development which lie behind the lines of division here suggested are of paramount importance and must be examined in considerable detail.

Stages in Child Development

23. In a process of growth, one stage often passes gradually and imperceptibly into the next. In children, no period of growth can be sharply distinguished from that which precedes or from that which follows. But stages are recognizable; and each has needs peculiar to it. They follow one another, for the most part, in a sequence which is common to all individuals. But, while the pattern of growth tends to be similar in all children, there may be important variations, and the rate of growth may differ considerably. A child may be normal or average in physical development, advanced in mental, and retarded in social development; but he is not likely to be highly advanced in one aspect of development and markedly retarded in another. The units or divisions of an educational system cannot be categorically defined in terms of development. They will not fit all children nor all the phases of development of a particular child; but they will in general correspond; and it is possible to establish units or stages in accordance with the periods of child development.

24. Until he is 3 years of age the child is an infant, almost wholly dependent on others to satisfy his needs. From age 3 he becomes increasingly self-dependent. At age 4 he becomes nearly independent in certain routines of home life. At age 5, having completed one phase of development, he is on the threshold of childhood. However, for reasons associated with sensory-motor development, and because of a lack of manual co-ordination and conceptual development, he is not ready to learn to read and write.

25. The 6-year-old child is ready to begin elementary school, with its formal instruction in the basic skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic.

The period from 6 to 8, or 8-plus years, is one of steady growth in all aspects of development; during these years the child learns the elementary facts of our culture, mainly through the concrete rather than the abstract, through the present and the familiar. It is a period when he learns to know the immediate environment; when he lays the foundations of that independence, based on such knowledge, which is characteristic of the period between 8 years and adolescence. The period from 8 to 12 or 12-plus years seems to be a separate stage in development. The child seems to be a completed product, desiring the prerogatives of an adult: with others of his own age he organizes clubs and gangs; he shows an intensification of the spirit of competition; and he acquires a large degree of independence of parental and other adult influences. His interests extend beyond the present and familiar; he can think in terms of the abstract; and can grasp ideas of human relationships and of people of other lands and times. But he is not yet an adult; he is in the period of relative calm that precedes the onset of puberty.

26. The period of adolescence is marked by profound physical and emotional changes. These are related; the most fundamental are the outcome of the maturing of the sex functions which is often a source of considerable embarrassment and self-consciousness, and perhaps a source of shame or even fear where the child has not been properly informed. Adolescents often experience a spurt in physical growth. The resulting lack of balance in bodily proportions tends to upset many of the established motor co-ordinations, with the consequence that the early adolescent passes through an awkward age, when he is constantly tripping over his own feet. In later adolescence, the body assumes its approximate adult proportions and the motor co-ordination of the adult is achieved. Adolescence is also an important period in the child's emotional development and social outlook; the changes in behaviour patterns and emotional attitudes are as great as the physical changes. There is an expansion in social interests, more particularly with regard to persons of the opposite sex. All his life the child has been growing and developing toward independence, but during adolescence the process is accelerated and, in most cases, almost completed.

27. Adolescence is not something which arrives over night. With all the attendant physical and psychological changes, it represents a stage in development embracing a considerable period of time. Nor are all aspects of the development completed at the same time. It is probable that mental ability, although it has closely approached its maximum by age 16, continues to grow into the late teens or early twenties, long after physical maturity has been reached, although the growth becomes smaller year by year. In any case, the period of development which begins with the onset of puberty and ends with the attainment of physical maturity is one of profound changes, and one which presents problems radically different from those of the periods which precede and follow it. Except for very atypical

cases, the age of reaching puberty ranges for girls from about 10 to about 18, and for boys from about 12 to about 18, although the evidence available¹ is not all consistent. However, in any large group of pupils the range of ages of attaining puberty will be, for the majority, from 12 to 16.

28. In the light of these facts, the following stages of development are generally accepted as those to which the organization of an educational system should conform:

Stage	Ages
1. Early Infancy	Up to three years
2. Late Infancy	Three to five years
3. Early Childhood	Five or six to eight years
4. Late Childhood (Pre-adolescence)	Eight or nine to twelve years
5. Early Adolescence	Twelve to sixteen years
6. Late Adolescence or Young Adulthood	Sixteen to nineteen or twenty years

Proposed Stages of the Educational System

29. The period of compulsory full-time school attendance determines the limits for the organization of the stages in the educational system. The provision of suitable education for children aged 6 to 16 must be the primary responsibility of local education authorities. But in nearly all countries, states, and provinces, including Ontario, provision has been made for formal education both before and after the period of compulsory school attendance.

30. An increasing interest in the education of very young children has resulted, in recent years, in the organization of classes for 4-year-old children in two of our larger cities. These were established under authority of *The Public Schools Act*; attendance is on a half-day basis and is not compulsory; and the parents may be required to pay fees. It is generally accepted that the education of children of this age in school can yield beneficial results, more particularly in social adjustment, though some people continue to believe that such education is a responsibility of the home. Kindergartens for 5-year-old children have, on the other hand, been in operation for many years. Their success in meeting the educational needs of these children has been convincingly demonstrated. Not the least of their successes has been in assisting children to adjust themselves to the routines and procedures of the classroom after the freedom of the home.

31. In the years following the period of compulsory school attendance, there is a need for an educational programme of specialized training as a preparation for the professions, industry, commerce, home-making, and agriculture. It is now conceded by a majority of our people that every child has the right to receive such training if he is able to profit from it.

32. We are concerned here with the division into stages of this whole educational programme. Any such division is somewhat artificial and tends

¹See, for example, Louella Cole, *Psychology of Adolescence*, New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1936.

to create barriers, but it is necessary, and the parts can be united through proper articulation. Within a unified educational system, it is imperative that one stage lead progressively and naturally to the next; secure bridges must be constructed between successive stages to facilitate passage from one to another. In other words, to conform with the principles of child development no abrupt changes should occur. Progress from one recognizable stage to the next should be a matter of continuous growth. For each child, according to his abilities, a single unified system should exist, extending from the time of his admission to school until his graduation.

33. We have based our recommendations as to the reorganization of the educational system into stages on the following principles:

- (1) The stages of the educational system should correspond as closely as possible to those of child development.
- (2) Entrance to the first stage of the educational system should coincide with the beginning of compulsory school attendance.¹
- (3) The completion of the programme of one stage of the educational system should coincide with the termination of compulsory school attendance.

In addition, two considerations regarding the boundaries of these stages are vastly important:

- (1) In view of the physical and psychological changes which occur with the onset of puberty, the educational system must be so organized that all children can complete one stage of education and begin another at about age 12.
- (2) At present, the educational programme extends over 13 grades and, in our opinion, is unnecessarily long. Accordingly, in the suggested reorganization of the curricula and courses of study, we have arranged to permit its completion, in normal circumstances, in 11 or 12 years. This period is exclusive of the time which may be spent in nursery school and kindergarten, and of an additional course of one year equivalent to the first year of university work to be offered in what we have called junior colleges. We believe that this reduction of the general programme can be secured without prejudice to the welfare of the students, and with an appreciable saving in time and money.

34. We therefore recommend

that the educational system be organized in three stages, as follows:

- (i) *ELEMENTARY EDUCATION, comprising nursery schools and kindergartens where established, together with a six-grade programme ending at about age 12;*
- (ii) *SECONDARY EDUCATION, comprising a four-grade programme, ending at about age 16;*

¹Nursery schools and kindergartens are not included here as local education authorities are not required to establish them.

- (iii) *FURTHER EDUCATION*, comprising all post-secondary education to be offered in junior colleges and technical institutes, as well as apprenticeship training and part-time education.

PROVISION OF EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

A. ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

(1) *Nursery Schools and Classes*

35. Nursery schools and classes, where established, are normally for 3-year-old and 4-year-old children. Desirable as the general provision of these facilities may be, the very high per pupil cost of education at this level is an important consideration. Because of this, and since the primary financial responsibility is to provide an adequate educational programme during the period of compulsory school attendance, we cannot recommend that nursery schools be made generally available. On the other hand, if local education authorities have discharged their primary responsibility, they should, in our opinion, be encouraged to provide educational facilities for younger children. But, since attendance at such classes will not be compulsory, and hence not all areas will make provision for them, legislative grants should not be paid on behalf of expenditures incurred in their operation.

36. We therefore recommend

- (a) *that, conditional upon maintenance of a required minimum standard of education in grades I to VI inclusive, as determined by the Minister, local education authorities be permitted to establish nursery schools and classes for 3-year-old and 4-year-old children;*
- (b) *that attendance at such schools or classes be voluntary and on a half-day basis;*
- (c) *that the full cost of the establishment and operation of such schools or classes be a responsibility of the local education authority;*
- (d) *that, for pupils attending such classes, local education authorities be authorized to charge such fees as they may deem necessary.*

Nursery schools must, of necessity, be neighbourhood schools; transportation of 3- and 4-year-old pupils is, generally speaking, neither advisable nor desirable. They should be housed separately, or at least in a separate department.

(2) *Kindergartens*

37. In discussing kindergartens, we are concerned with the education of 5-year-old children, whom we have, for convenience, considered as a distinct group. There can be no doubt that kindergarten training serves a most useful purpose in supplementing home training, in assisting the child in the transition from home to school life, and that it helps progress and

achievement throughout the regular grades. We are convinced of the value of kindergarten programmes for 5-year-old children, and believe that they should be more generally available. But the cost of making general provision for them, combined with other attendant difficulties, makes the undertaking almost impracticable. It would add many millions of dollars to our annual cost of education. Most local education authorities in the province could probably not afford to finance a full programme of kindergarten education in addition to their primary responsibilities. But the establishment of kindergartens for 5-year-old children should be encouraged, and local authorities should be permitted to provide these educational facilities.

38. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that, conditional upon the maintenance of a required minimum standard of education in grades I to VI inclusive, as determined by the Minister, education authorities be permitted to establish kindergarten classes for 5-year-old children;*
- (b) *that attendance at kindergarten classes be voluntary and on a half-day basis;*
- (c) *that general legislative grants be paid on the approved cost of operating kindergarten classes;*
- (d) *that, for pupils attending kindergarten classes, local education authorities be authorized to charge such fees as they may deem necessary.*

In consideration of the immaturity of the pupils concerned, their transportation over long distances is inadvisable. They should be housed in readily accessible neighbourhood schools, preferably in a department distinct from other rooms of the elementary school if not in a separate building.

(3) *Elementary School (grades I to VI inclusive)*

39. Since all pupils in the elementary school will be within the ages of compulsory school attendance, local education authorities will be required to make adequate provision for their education, and expenditures will be subject to general legislative grants.

40. At the elementary school stage, adequate housing facilities separate from secondary schools should be provided. Elementary schools will generally be neighbourhood schools, and there will be little need for transportation. In certain rural areas, however, an organized system for the transportation of elementary school pupils may be arranged, either in conjunction with, or separate from, that for secondary school pupils.

41. The reorganization of elementary education will be the source of no particular difficulty in urban centres. It will mean the continuance of neighbourhood schools of varying sizes within reasonable walking distance for pupils. Some difficulty may arise, however, in sparsely populated rural areas. Here, graded central schools may be established, or alternatively,

one-room schools may be continued. At present, the trend is toward the development of central schools, a trend which may well be accentuated in the new larger units of administration which we later recommend. It will be particularly rapid, according to experience in this province and elsewhere, where local conditions are favourable. But geographical conditions and the cost of central schools will, in all likelihood, make the continuance of the one-room rural school necessary in many parts of the province. This fact makes it imperative that many such schools be improved. There is no good reason why they cannot serve efficiently as rural neighbourhood elementary schools drawing their pupils from a relatively small area, especially where their field of activity is limited to the education of those who are under 12 years of age.

42. We therefore recommend

- (a) *that local education authorities be required to establish and operate six-grade elementary schools for the education of all children legally entitled to attend, who are between the ages of 6 and 12 years, as hereinbefore defined, and who are not otherwise exempted from attendance at such schools or otherwise under instruction satisfactory to the Minister;*
- (b) *that attendance at such schools be on a full-day basis;*
- (c) *that general legislative grants be paid on the approved cost of operating such schools;*
- (d) *that local education authorities be not permitted to charge fees on behalf of children entitled to attend such schools under their jurisdiction.*

43. We have been informed that, in some areas, the custom has been to admit beginners to elementary schools at various specified times within the school year. In our opinion, the practice of enrolling such pupils at any time other than the opening of the autumn term is educationally unsound and should be discouraged. Accordingly we recommend

*that beginners be admitted to elementary schools only at the opening of the autumn term.*¹

B. SECONDARY EDUCATION

44. Since students in secondary schools will be within the range of compulsory school attendance, local education authorities will be required to make adequate provision for all children entitled to attend. And, subject to the requirements of the Department of Education being satisfied, general legislative grants should be paid on the approved cost of operating.

45. In view of their diversified programmes, the secondary schools will need to be specially equipped and the cost will be relatively high. But the equipment need not be as specialized and expensive as that of our present vocational schools, and the cost per pupil should be substantially

¹See also paragraph 16 of this chapter.

less. The introduction of the new secondary schools should not add much, if anything, to the total cost of education, except for the additional cost consequent upon the enforcement of compulsory school attendance to age 16. In larger urban centres total enrolment will not be greatly increased and existing buildings may be utilized. Rural and newer suburban areas, however, where there is a lack of facilities for secondary education, will feel the full impact of the enforcement of compulsory school attendance to age 16. It will be difficult, especially in rural areas, to provide the necessary teachers and accommodation, but we are convinced the change should be made. The provision of transportation facilities, and residential facilities where necessary, will also prove to be a problem in many parts of our province; but similar difficulties have been overcome where they have arisen in Ontario and other provinces of Canada and in the United States, and they should not prove to be insurmountable.

46. We therefore recommend

- (a) *that local education authorities be required to establish and operate four-grade secondary schools for the education of all children legally entitled to attend, who are between the ages of 12 and 16 years, as hereinbefore defined, and who are not otherwise exempted from attendance or otherwise under instruction deemed satisfactory to the Minister;*
- (b) *that attendance at secondary schools be on a full-day basis;*
- (c) *that general legislative grants be paid on the approved cost of operating such schools;*
- (d) *that local education authorities be not permitted to charge fees on behalf of children entitled to attend secondary schools under their jurisdiction.*

C. FURTHER EDUCATION

47. The specialized training we contemplate for further education cannot all be given, as in the secondary school stage, in a single type of school. We suggest, therefore, that further education be provided in two types of schools, which we propose be called junior colleges and technical institutes, and through an extension of *apprenticeship training* and *part-time* education.

(1) *Junior Colleges*

48. Junior colleges will be a responsibility of the local education authorities for post-elementary education, and it will be the duty of the board to provide programmes and sufficient accommodation for all students who are entitled to attend and who desire to do so. We are aware that education at this level will be costly, but we feel that junior colleges should be an integral part of our publicly supported system of education. Subject to the requirements of the Department of Education being satisfied, general legislative grants should be paid on the approved costs of operating.

49. The general pattern to be followed under the reorganized system will be a 6-4-3 plan, that is, six grades of elementary education followed by four grades of secondary and by three grades of junior college. The programme should be designed to provide a standard at the end of the second year of junior college equivalent to successful completion of the present grade XIII (upper school), and equivalent at the end of the third year of junior college to entrance to second year courses in Arts at the University of Toronto. Under present circumstances it will not be practicable in some predominantly rural areas to provide more than two-year courses in junior colleges. Also, in some centres where universities are located, and where the equivalent of the final year of junior college is provided by the university, the local education authority may not provide the courses of the third year of junior college.

50. In larger urban centres and in other densely populated areas, such as suburban municipalities, the system can, as it should, be completely organized on the 6-4-3 plan we have recommended. Secondary schools and junior colleges should, of course, be housed in different buildings. However, in small urban centres with their surrounding rural territory, and in predominantly rural areas, such an arrangement may not be feasible since the population will be widely dispersed and transportation difficult. Because of limitations in what is economically and physically possible, it may be necessary to establish junior college departments in connection with a number of secondary schools, rather than a central junior college for the whole area. These junior college departments will generally offer only the two-year university-preparatory and vocational courses. In these areas, at least in the beginning, the system will probably be organized on the 6-4-2 plan. But there will normally be an urban centre, near the rural area, which has established a complete 6-4-3 plan, where the courses of the third year of junior college may be taken. Although it is regrettable that a partial plan should be instituted, even locally, it must be remembered that the less densely populated areas, such as exist in Northern Ontario, will always have their special educational problems. They will benefit more than appears at first sight from the proposed plan.

51. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that local education authorities be required to establish and operate junior colleges, or junior college departments in conjunction with secondary schools, providing two-year university-preparatory and vocational courses, and, where the need is demonstrated and it is physically and economically possible so to do, three-year university-preparatory courses, preferably in a junior college operated as a distinct unit, for all students resident in their areas who have qualified for entrance and desire to attend;*
- (b) *that attendance at junior colleges be voluntary and on a full-day basis;*

(c) *that general legislative grants be paid on the approved costs of operating such junior colleges and junior college departments.*¹

(2) *Provincial Technical Institutes and Apprenticeship Training*

(a) *Provincial Technical Institutes*

52. A technical training is required in some industries or industrial fields more specialized than that offered in vocational courses in junior colleges, and designed specifically to prepare individuals for particular skilled trades and semi-professional positions. This cannot be given in junior colleges, though the vocational courses in junior college will in a sense be preparatory to it. We therefore propose that provincial technical institutes be established, to be associated with specific industries or industrial fields. Where an institute is associated with a number of industries, such as the present Ryerson Institute of Technology, we suggest that it be known as a polytechnical institute.

53. The organization of this type of education presents special problems. Some students will enter a technical institute immediately after completing a two- or three-year junior college course; others will be youths and adults entering for varying lengths of time after a period of employment. They will attend part-time day or evening courses or full-time day courses. The students will vary in interests, needs, age, work experience, abilities, and aptitudes, as well as in educational achievement. A great variety of courses will therefore be required, from short, intensive "refresher" and "up-grading" courses, probably mainly part-time day and evening courses, to specialized courses in technical subjects. These last, designed for the training of skilled technicians for various industries and trades, will, in many cases, require full-time attendance for at least two years. A major problem in this field will be to secure co-ordination and integration of the efforts of all concerned with the administration of technical institutes, such as industry, organized labour, and departments of government.

54. We do not suggest the abolition or duplication of existing facilities, including those of apprenticeship training and those available at the present provincial technical institutes. We propose rather that such facilities be expanded, supplemented, and co-ordinated. Technical institutes and universities will operate in different fields; it is not intended that the courses described above should parallel, or supplant, the function of the universities in applied science.

(b) *Apprenticeship Training*

55. Special arrangements will have to be made for training artisans required for skilled trades other than those served by technical institutes. Although much has been done in this field, no comprehensive programme

¹Payment of fees in junior colleges is discussed in paragraph 11 of Chapter XI.

of trade training as yet exists in this province. There is evident need for trade schools and for an extension of the present programme of apprenticeship training. Apprenticeship in industry and courses in technical or polytechnical institutes should be considered as complementary methods of providing trade training. Apprenticeship training will meet the needs of some trades. The training for some other trades may be given in institutes. For still other trades a combination of the two methods of training might produce the best results.

56. It is impossible to outline here a complete programme of trade training. This will only become possible as the needs and demands of industry become evident and are expressed. Our main purpose is to encourage its development. If the administrative machinery and the facilities now required are provided, the details of the programme can be most satisfactorily determined by those intimately associated with the trades. Industry and organized labour must express their desires and needs and show willingness to cooperate fully in the development of the programme.

(c) Organization of Programmes of Technical Education and Trade Training

57. In this organization, co-operation and co-ordination of effort by all parties must be secured at the provincial as well as at the local level. The Department of Education, and other departments of government such as Labour and Agriculture, should assist whole-heartedly and generously; but they should not directly initiate unless the need is shown and support from other interested parties is assured. The Department of Education would seem to be the logical co-ordinating agency. Its interest and responsibilities in this connection are more direct and general than those of other government departments. From the evidence received by us,¹ and from our own investigations, it seems clear that the need for a common provincial policy and direction can be best met by establishing a provincial advisory committee. This should be appointed by the Minister of Education, and should be composed of representatives of employers, of employees, and of the departments of government concerned. It should advise the Minister on all matters related to technical education affecting both the Provincial and Federal Governments. In this way, all efforts and services in the whole field of technical education, vocational education, and trade training, may be co-ordinated; and in many cases federal projects may be furthered through use of provincial facilities.

58. Each technical institute, polytechnical institute, and division of apprenticeship training should be given full control, subject to the approval of the Minister of Education and to the conditions specified above, over its entrance requirements, admissions, examinations, promotions, and the

¹See, for example, Brief 152, *Apprenticeship Training*, submitted by the Provincial Advisory Committee for Building Trades.

awarding of diplomas or certificates. In the local field, an advisory committee appointed by the Minister of Education should have responsibilities for the school or schools concerned, corresponding to those of the provincial advisory committee. It should be composed of representatives of those who, like employers and employees, are directly affected. Its primary function should be to interpret to the staff of the school the requirements of the industry and trades which it serves, to secure a close liaison between the school and industry, and to assume responsibility for contributions and assistance from local groups and industries. The general direction and regulation of each institute and division of apprenticeship training should be by the Minister of Education upon the advice of local and provincial advisory committees.

59. Local education authorities will not be required to provide facilities for vocational and technical education and trade training at this level; therefore, technical and polytechnical institutes and apprenticeship training will be financed in a manner differing from that adopted for the schools of the general educational system. Financial support may be secured from a number of sources, such as student fees, contributions from local groups and industries, and grants from the Federal Government; but as there is no local taxing authority, the ultimate financial responsibility must rest with the province. Education of this type will be very expensive. The cost of equipment alone will represent a considerable investment, and fees charged to students may well be substantial. The cost to the student will be increased owing to the fact that the institutions will be located so as best to serve the whole province, or the section of it concerned, and students will attend from all parts of the province as well as from other provinces and countries. In some cases, therefore, residential or boarding facilities will be required; in other cases, bursaries or scholarships or other forms of financial assistance to students will suffice. We anticipate, however, that financial aid to students, possibly in the form of part-time employment or through bursaries, will, in the main, be the responsibility of the industries and trades.

60. We recommend

- (a) *that the Department of Education establish and operate, in co-operation with other agencies and groups concerned, technical and polytechnical institutes and divisions of apprenticeship training, where the need for such is demonstrated, and where the full support of the industries and trades concerned is secured;*
- (b) *that provision be made for full-time day courses and part-time day and evening courses in such institutes, and that they be co-ordinated with programmes of apprenticeship training, where this is feasible and desirable;*
- (c) *that students in attendance at such courses be charged fees in such amount as may be deemed necessary;*

- (d) *that a provincial advisory committee, composed of representatives of employers, employees, and of the departments of government concerned, be appointed by the Minister of Education to advise him on matters related to technical education, trade training, and vocational education;*
- (e) *that, where needed, a local advisory committee for each technical and polytechnical institute and division of apprenticeship training be appointed by the Minister of Education, to advise him and the staff of the school upon the requirements of the industry and trades served, and to secure close liaison between the school and the industries concerned;*
- (f) *that each technical and polytechnical institute and division of apprenticeship training have full control, subject to the approval of the Minister of Education and to the conditions specified above, over its entrance requirements, admissions, examinations, promotions, and the awarding of certificates or diplomas.*

(3) *Part-time Education*

61. At another point, we recommend that compulsory school attendance end on June 30th of the calendar year during which the pupil attains age 16. We must make certain, though it will be difficult, that no person capable of profiting from further education is denied an opportunity only because he finds it necessary for financial reasons to discontinue his education at this point. A generous system of scholarships and bursaries, tenable beyond the period of compulsory school attendance, will care for those who are able to attend full-time day courses. But this will not meet the needs of all. Provision must also be made for part-time education in day and evening classes wherever there is need. Attendance would, of course, not normally be compulsory on a full-time basis, except in certain vocational courses which are part of apprenticeship training. Here, a period of full-time attendance may be stipulated as a part of the articles of apprenticeship.

62. Provision is made in *The Adolescent School Attendance Act* for part-time compulsory education of all adolescents between ages 14 and 18 who are not otherwise exempted. It is mandatory on the part of every urban municipality or school section with a population of 5,000 or over¹ to provide part-time courses of instruction for the education of adolescents between such ages, and it is permissive on the part of any other municipality or school section. In representations made to us,² compulsory part-time education for all young persons from 16 to 18 years has been advocated. In point of fact, part-time instruction is now widely provided, but on a voluntary attendance basis. In 1946-47, there were 1,747 vocational evening school

¹See Sec. 8, *The Adolescent School Attendance Act*, R.S.O. 1937, Ch. 368.

²See, for example, Brief 43, submitted by District Five Council, United Electrical and Machine Workers of America, C.I.O., and Brief 154, submitted by the Ontario Provincial Executive and the Executive of the Trades and Labour Congress of Canada.

classes, employing 1,348 teachers and enrolling a total of 42,892 students; in addition, there were 105 academic night school classes, employing 108 teachers and enrolling 2,527 students. The total cost of the evening and night school programmes of the secondary schools during the financial year 1947 was \$519,686, and receipts from fees were \$140,744, or approximately 27 per cent of the total cost. Moreover, these vocational and academic night school classes are well distributed over the province, in Northern as well as in Southern Ontario. So far as we can determine, the need for part-time education is almost fully met by such classes and by other part-time and special courses offered in vocational schools.

63. In view of these facts, there is in our opinion no need to require compulsory part-time attendance; the needs can be fully met on a voluntary basis. Accordingly we recommend

that there be no compulsory attendance at part-time day or evening classes for adolescents of ages 16 and 17.

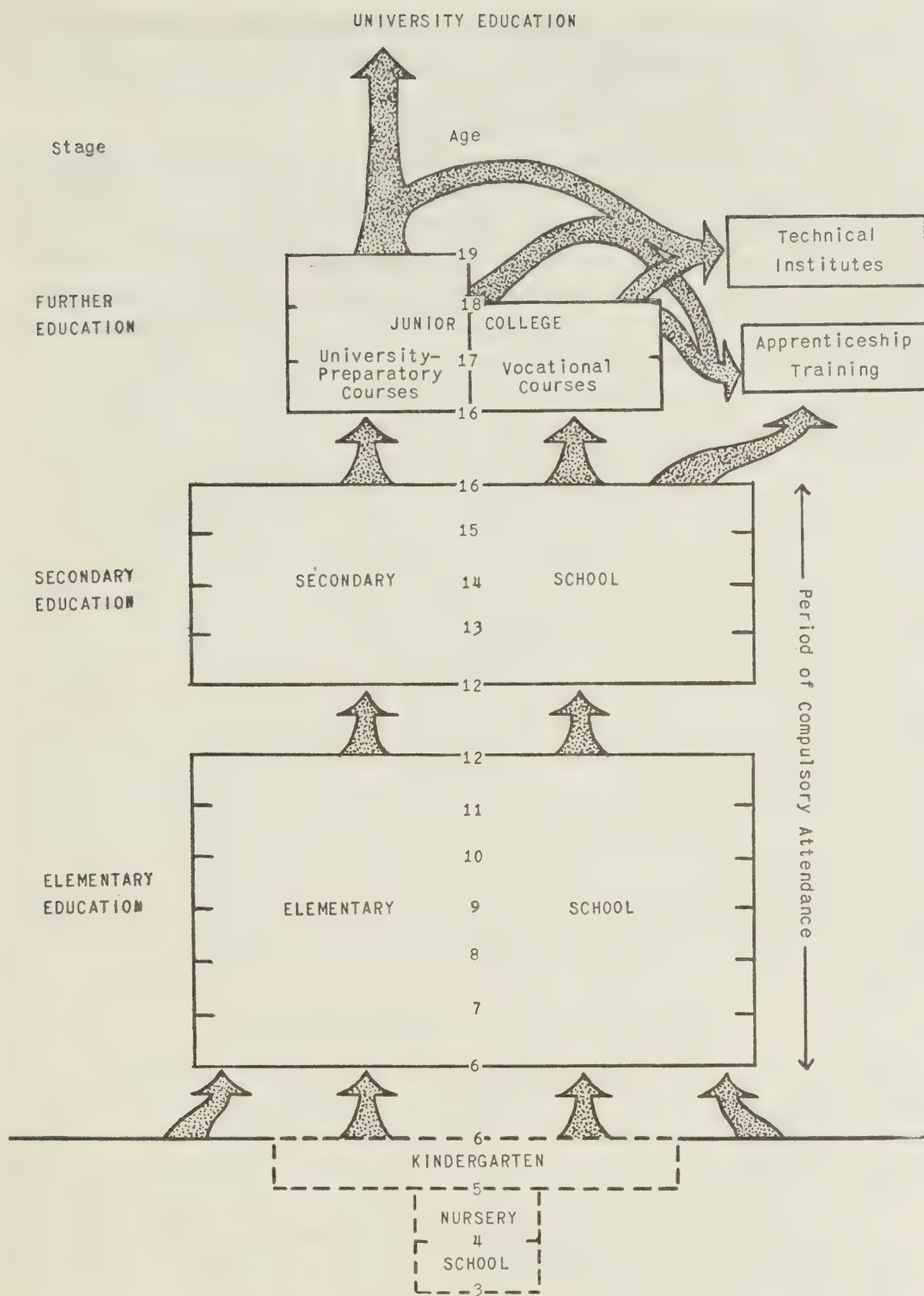
Nevertheless, provision of adequate facilities for part-time education is essential. Hence, not only should the present courses be continued, but additional facilities should be provided, where required, in both urban and rural areas. In our opinion, it should be the duty and responsibility of local education authorities to provide such facilities as part of the general system of education. This, together with the provisions we discuss later for adult education, will ensure that no person in this province who is capable of profiting from further education suitable to his needs, interests, and abilities is denied an adequate opportunity to continue his education.

64. We therefore recommend

- (a) *that, where the need is demonstrated and it is economically feasible so to do, local education authorities responsible for further education be required to provide part-time courses of instruction in day or night school classes, or in both, for persons of ages 16 and 17;*
- (b) *that local education authorities responsible for further education be permitted to provide part-time courses of instruction in day or in night school classes, or in both, for persons of ages 18 and over;*
- (c) *that attendance at any such classes for part-time instruction be voluntary;*
- (d) *that general legislative grants be paid on the approved cost of operating all such classes for part-time instruction;*
- (e) *that, for part-time education, local education authorities be authorized to charge such fees as they may deem necessary.*

THE REORGANIZED EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

65. On the following page is shown in diagrammatic form the flow of students to, and through, the various stages of the reorganized educational system. Not included is special education which will, in many respects, form a parallel system. Nor has there been depicted the flow of those gain-



THE REORGANIZED EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM
(6-4-3 plan)

fully employed in industry and commerce to courses in the provincial technical institutes, apprenticeship training, or to part-time courses. Reference to the teacher-training programme, which will be discussed in detail in a subsequent chapter, has also been omitted.

66. As shown in the diagram, some children below the age of compulsory school attendance will enter kindergarten or nursery school classes; but the majority will begin their education at approximately age 6 in an elementary school. Following the six-grade course in an elementary school, pupils at approximately age 12 will go to a new secondary school for four years, completing this programme at approximately age 16. This will mark the end of the period of compulsory school attendance; after this stage specialization in one of the major fields will begin for those who are qualified. Many young persons will, of course, discontinue their formal education at this point, except possibly for part-time day and evening courses, and seek gainful employment. Others will enter upon a period of apprenticeship training which will, in some cases, be combined with full or part-time attendance at a provincial technical institute or other school conducting such courses. Others who can meet the entrance qualifications will enter a junior college to take the university-preparatory or vocational courses there offered. It is expected that the majority of these students will remain to complete the specialized three-year university-preparatory or two-year vocational programme of the junior college; but some may wish, or may find it necessary, to seek employment at an earlier date. Some will leave at the end of the second year to enter upon a course of training at a provincial technical institute, or to take apprenticeship training independent of, or associated with, the courses at such institutes or a junior college. Those completing the three-year university-preparatory course may choose one of three major alternatives: they may enter employment directly; continue their training in institutes or through apprenticeship; or enter a university.

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE REORGANIZATION

67. In view of the complexity of the problems which will arise in the reorganization, we feel that we should place on record our ideas concerning the most satisfactory methods of implementing our proposals.

- (1) Elementary education should be immediately reorganized and new courses of study should be drafted for each of the six grades. One aim of the revision should be to permit pupils to achieve by the end of the new grade VI at least the standard attained at present by pupils by the end of grade VII.
- (2) Along with the reorganization of elementary education, post-elementary education should be reorganized on a 4-3 basis and new courses of study drafted for each grade.
- (3) Each local education authority for elementary education should be required to survey conditions within its area. Within a reasonable

period after enactment of the implementing legislation, it should prepare and submit to the Minister proposals for development, showing the financial resources of the authority and the means to be employed in financing this stage of education.

- (4) Each local education authority for post-elementary education should be required to survey conditions within its area. Within a reasonable period after enactment of the implementing legislation, it should prepare and submit to the Minister a comprehensive plan of development for secondary and further education. Each plan should be designed for immediate implementation and, where it is necessary to submit a partial plan, an orderly development toward the realization of the complete 6-4-3 organization should be outlined.

CHAPTER IV

THE PUPIL'S GROWTH AND PROGRESS¹

1. With the largely increased attendance which followed the introduction of compulsory attendance, highly organized systems of grading and promoting pupils were developed. It is difficult to determine whether they were based upon a philosophy of education or upon mere administrative convenience; but, in any case, the result was a rigid system of classification by grades, and of annual promotions based solely on achievement in courses of study which were carefully graded and minutely detailed. The administrative machinery for this, probably because of its convenience and efficiency, survived relatively unchanged through decades of fundamental changes in education. Finally, however, the system was recognized as being so obviously at variance with prevailing beliefs, and so clearly a matter of administrative convenience only, that it was successfully challenged. This development has, however, taken place recently; its full effect has been felt, in our own province, only within the last two decades; and a conflict of opinions, as shown in briefs presented to this Commission, still exists.

2. In our statement of what, in our opinion, should be the aims of education, we have stressed the interdependence of different aspects of growth, and the need to consider the child as an indivisible entity. The implications are far-reaching; they determine a large part of all our findings and recommendations; but nowhere are they more evident than in the sections dealing with the organization of the educational system and the school programme. We have arranged the stages of the educational system to correspond as nearly as possible to those of child development. The advantages so gained, however, will be vitiated unless, in the school, we can secure a curriculum and environment which will at each stage adequately foster the growth of each pupil.

3. To see why this is so, we must turn again to the findings of psychologists and others relating to child development. It is the child who grows, and it is to assist in his growth that the school programme must be designed.

¹This and the following chapter were prepared prior to the publication on December 10th, 1949, of a "Memorandum re Revision of Curriculum" by the Minister of Education; any resemblance between our proposals and the changes announced by the Minister is, therefore, coincidental.

In planning it, we must first determine the needs, interests, and abilities of the child in all aspects of his development. In addition to differences between any two children, each individual changes as he grows and develops. In a very real sense, each child is exceptional; each poses an educational problem which is, in fact, unique.

PATTERNS OF CHILD GROWTH

4. In spite of this fact, adequate provision for the great majority of children can be included within the framework of a general system of education. Special provision need be made for only a small minority of children who are markedly atypical in one or more aspects of development. The differences between children become greater and the effect on total development becomes more apparent as they grow older. This requires that, within the general educational system, adequate provision be made for a continuously expanding range of variation. It follows that if all children are to obtain the satisfaction which comes only from successful achievement, which is essential to their full development, a wide variety of courses and activities must be provided in the school programme.

5. Achievement, in the generally accepted sense, largely depends on ability to learn. Every child cannot proceed at the same rate and cover the same range, and evaluation of growth must take into account individual abilities and accomplishments. Mental ability tends to improve at a decreasing rate from infancy until intellectual maturity in the post-adolescent period. The tremendous strides in the growth of mental ability between the first and second birthdays of any child are obvious; growth between the twelfth and thirteenth birthdays is much less evident. Generally speaking, the child's intelligence quotient, or I.Q., the index of relative brightness, tends to remain constant and, except for the effects of injury, illness, malnutrition, or similar factors, the limit of mental growth is, within reasonable bounds, fixed early in life.

6. To intellectual must be added physical and motor, as well as social and emotional, variations. Thus, the school programme must be planned to meet the needs of a bewildering complex of individual differences. Fortunately, however, there are patterns in the maze of individual differences which may be discerned and used as guides. In using them, it must be remembered that a pattern is based on averages. Moreover, there is not necessarily a single consistent pattern for all traits associated with the development of an individual. Nevertheless, patterns make it possible to devise bases on which to organize an educational programme.

7. As we have seen, all children pass through recognizable stages of development and have needs peculiar to each stage. In what follows we shall concern ourselves, in the main, with the three major areas of growth—physical, mental, and social. Motor development will be treated in conjunction with physical development; and observations on emotional develop-

ment will be made in our treatment of social development, with which it is closely related. Of course, these "areas of growth" do not exist in isolation; but, for our purpose, they can be discussed separately.

Physical and Motor Development

8. The period of late infancy, from 3 to 5 years, is characterized by relatively rapid physical growth. This growth is not so spectacular as that of the first three years of life, but it is more pronounced than it will be, except during the period of adolescence, in the years which follow. There is a rapid development in motor skills, more noticeable in the gross bodily movements. While practice and learning are important in the development of these skills, it must be borne in mind that they will develop in their own good time, and for the most part the child will not need adult coaching, but opportunity and encouragement only. His motor life is characterized by incessant activity, frequent and sudden fatigues, and quick recovery. For proper physical and motor development he needs plenty of freedom for activity. To be forced to remain physically quiescent for long periods of time is not conducive to normal physical growth; on the other hand, his activities should be carefully supervised, so that he may be neither encouraged nor permitted to push himself into a state of excessive fatigue. The child's need for rest and nutrition should not be neglected. Although susceptibility to fatigue varies widely among children, appropriate rest periods should be available for all. Since children at these ages are particularly susceptible to epidemics, they should be under careful medical supervision, and a careful watch should be kept for ailments that are communicable.

9. Throughout the period of childhood from age 5 or 6 to age 12, physical growth continues in a fairly regular way. The child improves steadily in all his motor skills—in muscular strength, in speed and accuracy of movement, and in motor co-ordination. Motor activities have great influence in the child's development, and motor competence is highly important for his happiness. This is the period of development of the finer muscular co-ordinations. During these years, it is largely through motor activities that the child, perhaps more particularly the boy, makes voluntary social associations both in school and in the community. Moreover, motor skills pay dividends which will be extremely useful to him as an adult. Not only do they make him more competent in occupations which call for motor dexterity, but (and this is often of more consequence) they also lay the foundation for physical well-being and for wholesome recreational activities. Medical supervision should be continued. Children are still susceptible to infections and epidemics; physical defects that can be corrected should be identified and remedied as early as possible.

10. We have earlier referred to the major physical changes accompanying adolescence, in particular to acceleration in the rate of physical growth

and the attainment of maturity. Boys, at all ages above early childhood, tend to be superior to girls in muscular strength and development, and this tendency is accentuated during adolescence. This difference between boys and girls may be attributed partly to innate constitutional factors, but more to cultural and environmental influences. Play activities entailing physical strength and endurance, which largely provide the exercise necessary for muscular development, are encouraged in boys but, for the most part, discouraged in girls. In both boys and girls, except for the temporary setback experienced during the awkward age of early adolescence, motor skills and motor co-ordination develop steadily and arrive at adult levels during late adolescence or early in the post-adolescent period. But there is a falling off in physical activity during late adolescence, owing to a widening of the sphere of interests, and play activities lose their former position of pre-eminence.

Social and Emotional Development

11. At the beginning of the period of late infancy, the child is still largely physically and socially dependent on adults, but has begun to assert himself as an individual. This phenomenon of resistance to adult demands is so universal that it would appear to be a normal feature in the development of the self. The struggle against conformity varies in intensity from child to child; but most children learn the lessons in conformity sufficiently well before grade I. Pupils can be treated by the teacher of grade I as a group of individuals amenable to reasonable control. Throughout the years of the individual's development from infancy to adulthood, he is engaged in a process of winning emancipation from dependence on the home, and in building social relationships with people outside his family circle. A fair amount of this social growth takes place during the period of late infancy. As he enters this period, the child develops a desire to play in the company of other children. At first, there is a tendency for the play to be individual rather than co-operative; although surrounded by others, each child is absorbed in his own pursuits. Later, he begins to enter into group activities. But, even at age 6, he is unlikely, without adult help, to participate effectively in group projects where the group is large.

12. During late infancy, the child's relations with others of his own age are characterized by a good deal of self-assertive behaviour. With the younger child, it takes the form of struggling for possession of a toy, pushing, and hitting. As he grows older, he discovers more subtle means of achieving his ends. There is less hitting and more arguing. In all this the child is learning how to get along with others, and how best to hold his own in a competitive world—an important part of his education. Growth in emotional behaviour is associated with this development; love, fear, sorrow, rage, joy, and other emotions are powerful motivating forces and deeply involve the well-being and satisfaction of the child. His emotional reactions

become less explosive and more subdued and controlled. He learns, for example, that temper tantrums are not an effective means of obtaining his aims, and that uncontrolled emotional outbursts bring the disapproval of his peers and isolation from them. However, as emotional expression comes progressively under the child's control, it becomes more difficult for others to infer his emotional state from his behaviour; and, if this control is carried to excess, it may imprison within him feelings and tensions of which cognizance should be taken by those who have him in their care.

13. The beginning of the period of early childhood, which generally coincides with entrance into the first grade of the elementary school, constitutes a landmark in the process of the child's growing independence of his home, of his parents, and of his elders in general. Depending on the extent to which his growth has progressed, and perhaps equally on the nature of the environment and experiences which he will encounter in his first year at school, the hurdle will be taken with greater or less disturbance to his sense of security. Nearly all children achieve an adjustment to the new situation, and continue the march toward freedom from earlier ties and toward a growing dependence on the society of their peers. Most of what the child learns of fair play, social adaptability, conformity to group requirements, and skill in group participation, he learns from his associations with children of his own age group. Early in this period, in some cases before, boys and girls begin to show a preference for association with playmates of their own sex. This tends to become marked during the middle and later years of childhood, then to weaken during adolescence when interest in members of the opposite sex begins to come to the fore.

14. With an increase in participation with other children in numerous activities comes intensification of the spirit of competition. Educators rightly stress co-operation rather than competition in human relations. Nevertheless, properly regulated competition serves a useful purpose as motivation to achievement. It must be recognized, also, that the spirit of competition is one of the strongest and most fundamental of human urges. We neither can, nor should, attempt to eliminate it from school; but we should regulate it and capitalize upon its motivating power.

15. The emotional welfare of the child, during this period, tends to suffer from neglect both at home and at school. He has learned to keep his emotions concealed: he fights shy of any extravagant display of affection; he holds back the tears of disappointment and frustration; and he subdues unruly outbursts of temper. But the absence of any open expression of emotion cannot be accepted as an indication of emotional serenity. We make a mistake if we weigh the child's problems in adult scales. We must always remember that the worries of the 8-year-old, which seem trivial to adults, may be fraught with great significance for him. They are as important as

the most serious worry of the adult, and probably of greater importance in their effect upon growth and general well-being.

16. Adolescence is an important period in the child's social and emotional development. The most conspicuous aspect of social development is the expansion of interest in members of the opposite sex. During pre-adolescence and early adolescence, as noted above, relations between the sexes are marked by antipathy rather than attraction. As the child grows through middle and later adolescence, antipathy is replaced first by tolerance and then by attraction. The attraction tends to develop earlier in girls and, as a consequence, they have, at first, difficulty in attracting the attention of boys of their own age, and often turn to boys a year or two older. The early displays of interest in members of the opposite sex are not commonly characterized by subtlety and refinement. But these awkward and self-conscious advances yield to a stage which is characterized by sudden and intense devotion to a particular playmate, and affection is transferred from one person to another with bewildering rapidity. This stage again is a passing phase in the child's development, leading to later adolescence, with more mature, more realistic, and usually more lasting, interests and attachments. In all these changes, a sound social adjustment contributes greatly to the child's present and future happiness in life. Social activities are essential to his education. They should be kept under reasonable control and supervision, and encouraged.

17. Adolescence normally brings a change in the type of voluntary group in which the child takes an interest. Instead of being composed entirely of boys or of girls, it includes boys and girls in approximately equal numbers; and its purpose changes from excitement and adventure to the enjoyment of social activities. In its changed form, the group helps the adolescent to achieve confidence and ease in his associations with members of the opposite sex; it helps him to develop social skills; and it generally furthers his social and emotional development.

18. For most boys and girls adolescence is a period of considerable emotional strain. The attaining of maturity ushers in a new and unfamiliar era. It is accompanied by an increased interest in social activities, with the result that the adolescent becomes acutely concerned over such things as his social acceptability, his physical appearance, the quality and style of his clothes, and the amount of his spending money. Emancipation from home ties and parental protection and authority is, in most cases, almost completed. This leads, in some cases, to a demand for more freedom than is desirable. In other cases, parents refuse to allow the freedom appropriate to the child's years. The struggle for independence is often characterized by friction and rebellion. But the youth is approaching adulthood, and one of the first responsibilities of the home and the school, and one of the most

•

difficult to discharge satisfactorily, must be to guide him, without too much strain and turmoil, to a state of independence and freedom.

Mental Development

19. In early infancy a child's world is centred in the present; in late infancy he can entertain vivid memories of the past and, through imagination, concern himself in a limited way with the future. Much of his progress comes through the wonders of language. The average child advances from the use of three or four words at one year to about a thousand at 3 years. From then until his 6th birthday he adds to his vocabulary about 50 new words a month. At the same time there is an improvement in sentence structure. Beginning with one-word sentences at about 18 months of age, the child advances to complete sentences, with pronouns, prepositions, articles, conjunctions, and inflected verbs, by about the age of 4. By the time he is 5 years old, the average child, with little or no formal instruction, has achieved a facility with language which is truly astonishing when compared with what is accomplished even with expert instruction at a later stage. For the most part, the child acquires fluency in the use of sentences through imitation, and learns the meaning of words by inference from their context. It is small wonder that many of the meanings and words are distorted, and that many of the distortions persist throughout life. On the other hand, his capacity to generalize in matters such as number and tense is remarkable. An important feature of this period is the child's growing familiarity with books. By acquiring ability to follow simple stories told or read to him, his vocabulary is broadened, his imagination is quickened, the span of his attention is lengthened, and a foundation is laid for learning to read.

20. During later infancy the child makes tremendous strides in ability to reason. He becomes increasingly able to understand happenings about him, and to give reasons for his own behaviour. By the end of this period he can reason logically, although adults should recognize that his powers of logic are necessarily limited by the range of his knowledge and experience.

21. Even in late infancy the child's intellectual life appears to be characterized by an insatiable curiosity. Adults in the home and in the school are often blamed for the fact that this later becomes dulled. No doubt this may be caused partly by the often unforgivable impatience of those to whom he turns for enlightenment, but it is probably to a larger degree a result of the mere process of growing up. Gradually he acquires a fund of knowledge which he accepts as sufficient for his needs, and there is no occasion for him to become so frequently lost in wide-eyed wonder. Moreover, he is not so easily distracted. The span of his attention has more than doubled, and he becomes better able to persist in his pursuit of a goal, using only the knowledge and skills at his own disposal.

22. Make-believe and imaginative play tend to reach their greatest development during this same period. With reasonable facility the child will

assume the role of doctor or patient, horse or driver, policeman or criminal, mother or infant. As he grows older he becomes increasingly desirous of assuming the more dominant role in the make-believe situation. When his knowledge, skills, and responsibilities increase, he becomes ever more absorbed in the world of reality, and it becomes both less easy and less necessary for him to find satisfaction in the world of make-believe. Nevertheless, phantasy plays a very real part in his development. It stimulates his imagination, affords a means for the organization of his play activities, and permits him to transcend space and time, thus overcoming the limitations which his immaturity imposes.

23. Mental development during the period of childhood is but an extension of that of infancy. Ability in the use of language increases, the powers of concentration improve, the child becomes more logical in his thought processes, and the dream-world recedes. Of special significance is the fact that his intellectual interests become less self-centred as he grows older. At age 6 he is almost wholly absorbed in happenings in which he himself participates, or which occur in his presence. At age 12 his horizon has broadened; he gives some attention to the world at large; and he discusses current events with interest, and with a fair degree of understanding. This does not mean that, at about age 12, children may be rushed into subjects relating to political, economic, and social ideas which are of direct practical interest only to adults. Many such ideas are quite meaningless to the child, since they are quite outside his area of experience and interest and have little in common with the normal affairs of childhood. It is indeed a far cry from the consuming self-interest of early childhood to that mental maturity which permits the individual to have any real interest in economic and political affairs.

24. Improvement in vocabulary and language usage is still spectacular, although much less so than in the later years of infancy. The increase in vocabulary, for example, continues at a rate which, to adult eyes, is phenomenal. In marked contrast, children mature relatively slowly in their concepts of time, despite the fact that they may use the appropriate words and phrases freely, and generally correctly. There is considerable evidence to show that not until about the end of the period of childhood should a child be expected to cope understandingly with historical dates and periods and with the chronology of historical events. Even intensive instruction does little to accelerate this understanding. For the most part, the child must be left to grow into the proper understanding through his day-to-day conversation and experience.

25. Long before the period of childhood ends, the child will have managed to assign the make-believe world fairly well to its proper place in the scheme of things. Imaginative activities continue to play an important part in his life, but he becomes better able to distinguish between what is real and what is imaginary, and more firmly orientated in the world of

reality. At the same time his ability to persevere continues to improve. Of course, he will exhibit most persistence and concentration in performing those tasks which enlist his interest, or which he recognizes as necessary to the achievement of a highly desired goal. Not only, however, does he improve in his ability to persist in tasks which contribute to the satisfaction of his own purposes, he also develops greater readiness to accept, as chores, routine jobs which have little or no interest in themselves.

26. It is commonly accepted that maturity in the various aspects of mental development is attained during the period of adolescence or, at the latest, early in the post-adolescent period. But it is not surprising that there should be differences of opinion on this particular point since the increments of growth become smaller year by year and it is almost impossible to determine just when the maximum is reached. In any case, all do not arrive at their maximum mental ability at the same age. Nevertheless, we seem to be reasonably safe in assuming that, for all practical purposes, mental maturity is attained at approximately age 16.

27. We can see more clearly what is meant by maturity in mental development if we consider one aspect of it in detail. This is the ability or capacity to learn, which has, for obvious reasons, been carefully studied. For the average child, growth in ability to learn keeps pace with increase in age until approximately age 16. For other children, growth in ability may be either slower than, or may outpace, the increase in age. Either variation will obviously affect the level of mental development attained when maturity is reached. For a number of children, growth is so retarded that even the best of them never attain an ability to learn beyond that of an average child of 8 years. These children, who are fortunately few in number, are classed as "ineducable" because their handicap is so great that they cannot be educated in ordinary schools. Another and larger group consists of those whose maximum levels of ability range between those attained by an average child of 8 and an average child of 12. These children are generally considered to be so handicapped that they must be educated in special classes separated from others of the regular school system. The remaining

TABLE 1
LEVELS OF ABILITY TO LEARN

<i>Classification (I.Q.)</i>	<i>Designation</i>	<i>Percentage of Children</i>
Over 120	Gifted	7.0
110 to 120	Superior	13.0
90 to 110	Average	60.0
75 to 90	Below Average	17.0
50 to 75	Very Dull and Feeble Minded	2.7
Below 50	Ineducable	0.3

children attend classes in the usual schools. They may, however, be classified into three clearly distinguishable groups—below average, average, and above average; and sometimes a fourth group, for those classed as gifted, is added. A commonly accepted classification, on the basis of ability to learn, is shown in Table 1, together with the percentage of the population falling into each category.

28. Alongside these differences between children, and frequently independent of them, are differences in other aspects of development. In physical development children range from those who are physically handicapped to those who are physically gifted, and there is a similar range in their social development.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE SCHOOL PROGRAMME

General Implications

29. To plan a programme of education which will be suitable for the average child is, in itself, a difficult task; to plan a programme which will also meet individual differences presents a problem which educators do not claim to have solved. Yet a solution must be attempted if we are to create a public system of education based on the compulsory attendance of all children of specified ages. How may children be taught in groups, as they must because of the large numbers to be taught, when each child in the group is unique and poses a unique educational problem?

30. Many of the existing policies and practices of education were devised before much knowledge of the growth needs and patterns of children had been gained. The graded school, with its uniform programme arranged in detail, grade by grade, is a common feature of all educational systems. The original purpose was to secure homogeneity in the classroom. All the children were taught alike and promoted according to a uniform standard. The system worked, and still works, well enough for the average child, but not for the others. The weaker children were piled up, as "over-aged", in the lower grades; the brighter ones coasted along and developed poor habits of study and work. Dissatisfaction grew. In time, school authorities either changed their policies and practices materially, or at least showed a readiness to do so.

31. The changes which were made were based on the assumption that the root of the difficulty lay in the uniform rate of progress and in the system of annual promotions. Accordingly, semi-annual and even quarter-annual promotions were introduced, so that those failing to gain promotion were not required to repeat a full year. In the Batavia plan¹ the system of annual promotions was retained, but the children in each classroom were divided into two groups. The pupils who had been making reasonable progress were included in one group and those who had been retarded

¹So named from the community in New York where it originated.

were placed in the other; and the teacher, or an assistant teacher, devoted special attention to coaching the laggards, so that all might cover the same programme at the same rate. The purpose was to bring the dull children up to normal standard. Some pupils did benefit but the normal and gifted tended to be sacrificed in order that all might proceed at the same rate. In the Cambridge plan¹ the elementary school programme was divided into two parallel courses, arranged so that one course could be completed in six years and the other in eight. The scheme was based upon the retention of a uniform curriculum and a system of annual promotion, but allowed for two rates of progress. Children were transferred from one course to the other according to the progress they had made. This allowed brighter children to complete the programme before they were physically and socially ready to enter a secondary school, but it did not allow the very dull to complete the standard course.

32. In a widely accepted variation of the Cambridge plan, the rate of progress was held constant, but three parallel courses were set up: an enriched course for the gifted child; an average course for the average child; and a minimum course for the slow child. All children completed the programme in the same number of years, but with widely varying accomplishments. The purpose was to give each child, as far as possible, a curriculum and rate of progress suited to his ability, while retaining the group method of teaching. Although this plan has been eminently successful in many respects, it has been criticized severely. Parents and others have objected to the classification and "labelling" of pupils. Some critics have pointed out that, since a child varies in his abilities, a strictly homogeneous grouping could be achieved only by changing the classification for each type of activity.

33. Logically, the ideal solution would seem to be individual programmes together with rates of progress designed specifically for each child. This has been attempted, but with varying degrees of success. Only two well known plans need be mentioned. Washburne, in the Winnetka plan,² divided the programme into two parts: firstly, the basic "tool subjects", and secondly, group and self-expression activities. In the latter, although no achievement goals were set, individuality was encouraged. In the former, however, units of work were established and a pupil was allowed to progress as rapidly as he could master them. Somewhat similar was the Dalton plan.³ Here the regular curriculum was divided into "blocks" of work, and the pupil contracted with the teacher to do a "block" in a specified time, being free to work more or less as he wished on the various subjects comprising it. Each child could, therefore, proceed at his own rate.

34. Such plans, however, made the task of administering the school

¹Originating in Cambridge, Massachusetts.

²Originated at Winnetka, Illinois, in 1919.

³Originated at Dalton, Massachusetts, in 1919.

programme very difficult and onerous. Usually it was found to be more convenient to leave the graded system untouched and to set up special classes for the children who did not fit into it. Such classes have been variously named—"ungraded classes", "opportunity classes", "pick-up classes", and so on—but their purpose has nearly always been to return the child to his regular grade as quickly as possible. Their advantage lay in the fact that the classroom teacher was relieved of the extra burden of coaching retarded pupils, who received instead specific and expert individual instruction. Their weakness lay in the erroneous assumption that all children would complete the regular programme at a uniform rate of progress if some special help were provided occasionally for those who lagged behind.

35. Many of these plans illustrate the ingenuity of their authors; but the generally common feature of a standard programme with variation only in the rate of progress has yielded unsatisfactory results.

36. The ideal solution—individual programmes for each child—is not practicable in a system of publicly supported education. Some compromise must therefore be effected between what is ideal and what is practicable. There are a number of principles upon which such a compromise must be based. Firstly, the growth of each individual pupil in all aspects of development must be evaluated in order that his needs and abilities may be known. In fact, the programme will be largely determined by the information so revealed. Secondly, classification of pupils is necessary; but it must be flexible, as conditions vary greatly from school to school, from level to level, and even from classroom to classroom. In a system of publicly supported education, classification of pupils permits the closest approximation possible to the ideal of individual instruction. Thirdly, the curriculum, courses of study, and teaching methods must be adapted to meet the needs of the pupils in the various groups; there cannot be a single, uniform, strictly graded curriculum. This is the closest approximation possible in a system of publicly supported education to the ideal of a specific programme for each individual child. Fourthly, markedly atypical children must receive special educational treatment in schools and classes separate from those of the regular school system. There must also be remedial instruction in the classroom or, if need be, temporarily in special groups, in order that an unnecessarily fine classification of pupils may be avoided. Finally, the policies and practices which are followed in any stage of education must be in conformity with the aims of that stage.

37. Before specific suggestions and recommendations for each of the three stages of the reorganized educational system are given, a number of general findings must be recorded. They constitute, in effect, the principles upon which our specific recommendations are based.

38. Taken together, the new elementary and secondary stages of the educational system correspond in length to the period of compulsory school attendance. Provision must therefore be made in them for the education of

all children. The major emphasis must be upon general education if the minimum standard required of all citizens is to be achieved and the fullest possible development of all aspects of personality obtained. We recommend *that in the elementary and secondary stages provision be made:*

- (i) *for classification of children according to needs, ability, and achievement at each level of the programme;*
- (ii) *for promotion according to individual achievement, evaluated in terms of capacity and total development;*
- (iii) *for programmes arranged on the following basis:*
 - (1) *a minimum core of skills and knowledge to be attainable with reasonable success and to be taken by all pupils;*
 - (2) *a supplement to be taken by pupils of average ability;*
 - (3) *an enriched supplement to be taken by pupils of higher than average ability;*
- (iv) *for special educational treatment of markedly atypical children in separated classes.*

39. At the stage of further education, the benefits of the specialized programmes can be obtained only by students who possess at least a specified minimum of ability, skill, and knowledge, within the elected field. Although there will be emphasis, at this stage also, on the total development of personality and on achievement to the utmost of capacity, a change in standards must be made. Instead of a standard of achievement appropriate to groups of varying ability, there will be a minimum standard sufficient to ensure competence, and applicable to all. We recommend

- (a) *that, in the stage of further education, the major criterion for entrance to, and promotion within, a specialized field, whether academic, vocational, or technical, be the attainment of minimum standards of achievement expressed in terms of skill and knowledge;*
- (b) *that a standard curriculum be provided in each specialized field.*

40. A related general question is that of the retardation and acceleration of the progress of pupils. By retardation of progress we mean requiring a pupil to repeat the work of a year or of a course. We believe that this should not be necessary where a programme is provided for the pupil which suits his ability and demands effort on his part. Retardation generally has ill effects on the development of the pupil and on that of other pupils with whom he is ill fitted, physically and socially, to associate. Repetition of a unit of work, however, may be necessary because of illness or for other reasons, or because of failure to achieve a standard commensurate with ability. Retardation at the elementary and secondary school stages suggests failure to provide the programme best adapted to aid the child in his development. At the stage of further education, it may indicate that the student has not the ability necessary for the specialized course he has selected; if this is reasonably certain, he should be encouraged to pursue a line of endeavour for which he has particular ability and aptitude. Although allowance must be made in exceptional circumstances, we recommend

that, where at all possible, retardation of progress of pupils, at any stage of the educational system, be avoided.

41. By acceleration of progress we mean permitting an able pupil to complete all, or part of, the programme in less than the time normally required. It may be argued, in favour of acceleration, that the mental capacity of many gifted pupils enables them to master the academic work of an accelerated programme. In our opinion, however, they profit more from an enrichment of the general programme appropriate to their stage of physical and social development. Indeed, the basic aim of the complete development of personality is abandoned when the progress of a child is accelerated to such an extent that he is separated from his appropriate social group. Moreover, the programme of study in the new elementary school will be reorganized and intensified, and this will make acceleration of progress inadvisable if not impossible. In the stage of further education, specialized courses will be designed for competent students, and acceleration will not, in general, be possible. In the new secondary stage, however, it may be possible to arrange for a maximum acceleration of one year by providing gifted students with a special course covering in two years the programme of the final three years. But we do not favour such action. Instead, we recommend

that, as a general principle, acceleration of progress of pupils, at any stage of the educational system, be avoided.

42. Throughout our discussion we have assumed that provision will be made for the transfer of pupils from one classification to another and from course to course. Such transfers within and between schools, at the elementary and secondary school levels, should be made without unnecessary repetition of courses and without unduly impeding the pupil's general progress. These conditions also apply in regard to the transfer from one course to another at the stage of further education. Here they will be more difficult to meet because the programme will be specialized.

43. Our general belief regarding progress is that promotion should be based on achievement measured in terms of total development. Full effort on the part of the student is assumed. In our opinion, there can be no true achievement without effort; nor, with effort, can there be complete failure. This interdependence of effort and achievement is fundamental in all human endeavour. But effort alone is not the sole determining factor in successful achievement. The upper limit of performance for the individual is determined by capacity; the degree to which this limit is attained is determined by effort. Effort seems to be an acquired rather than an innate characteristic. It is essential, therefore, that every means be utilized to develop this attribute of self-discipline. Only in this way can the child develop habits of work which will enable him to make the utmost use of his capacity and ability.

44. The general principles discussed above make it necessary for the teacher to be given an opportunity to study and to assess the all-round growth of each of his pupils. The extent to which he can be adviser and

friend to each pupil, studying his entire personality, assisting him in his total development, and counselling him in meeting his problems, obviously depends on the number of students for whom the teacher is responsible. Large classes are likely to give rise to inappropriate and ineffective methods of instruction, to encourage reliance on commercially distributed lesson aids, to restrict adaptations for individual differences, to retard the progress of the students, and to add greatly to the work of the teacher. Briefs from several sources have drawn attention to the difficulty of teaching large classes effectively. We are of opinion that in both elementary and secondary schools the number of pupils in any class should be limited to a maximum of 30. In junior college, the maximum might possibly be raised to 35, where equipment and accommodations permit it, without adversely affecting efficiency.

Implications for Kindergartens

45. In kindergarten the question frequently arises as to whether or not a particular child is "ready" to enter grade I with others of the same chronological age. By "ready" we mean acceptable in all aspects of development—physical, social, and mental. The answer must always lie in what is best for the child. Promotion must be determined in relation to his appropriate group, the one in which he will develop best. In the case of the atypical, as well as the markedly atypical, child, growth may well be retarded if he is promoted; but for nearly all children of these ages growth will be retarded if they are not promoted. A child should be required to spend extra time in the kindergarten only when the evidence is overwhelmingly in favour of it.

Implications for Elementary Schools

46. As noted previously, one stage in a child's development seems to be completed and another begun at approximately age 8-plus. Within the new elementary school, therefore, there are two recognizable stages in the child's growth, and therefore there should be a corresponding change in the programme after the elementary skills and concepts have been introduced. For these reasons, we have regarded grades I to III, and grades IV to VI, respectively, not as individual grades but as groups comprising divisions of the elementary school. In planning the curriculum and courses of study, it might be advantageous to retain the grade classification; but in the internal organization of the school and in the school programme, the evidence is nearly all in favour of discarding the traditional grade system. In our opinion, it is desirable to organize the programme of the elementary school in two divisions, which we have for convenience called junior and senior, each of three years' duration. Although they are distinct, one division shades into the other, and they have the same general aims. If the six-grade programme is thus divided into junior and senior divisions, it may be possible in certain cases to organize a separate department in the school for each. This is, in fact, the practice in England. Conditions are such in Ontario,

however, that the provision of separated departments cannot be made mandatory. In any case, even in one-room schools, the programme should be divided into junior and senior divisions.

47. The programme of each division should be organized as a unit in which the pupil spends three years, there being no promotions or failures within it. Wherever possible, the organization within a division should permit each teacher to have under his charge the pupils of all three years, and allow pupils to remain with one teacher for three years. A class might then consist of ten pupils of each of the age groups. Ten pupils would normally be promoted annually from the division, and ten beginners would enter it. Many of the activities in social studies, natural science, art, and music might be engaged in by all pupils, the enterprise method being in general use. The centre of interest in each activity should be the same for all pupils; but the tasks required and the degree of attainment expected should vary with the ages, aptitudes, and abilities, of the children. Such an organization approximates conditions in the ordinary life of children out of school, where those of about the same age normally engage in the same play activities. For the "tool subjects", such as reading, writing, and arithmetic, which are sequential in nature, it will be possible to organize the class into a small number of groups, with the members of each having relatively the same degree of attainment. Thus it will be possible for a younger child who is a superior reader to become a member of a more advanced reading group, or for a child who is deficient in arithmetic to work with a less advanced group in that subject, while remaining with his own age group in other activities of the class. Such an organization will make possible provision for individual differences and varying rates of attainment, so woefully lacking in a system of rigid grading and annual promotions. It will at the same time enable all children to master the minimum core required, and afford an enriched programme for the average and above-average children. The latter will still retain their membership in their own age group, thus associating with children of approximately their own degree of physical and social development.

48. Experience has demonstrated¹ that in such an organization practically all pupils reach an acceptable standard of achievement and may be promoted at the end of each division. However, for the markedly atypical children, treatment in separated classes will be required. Thus, even the above flexible arrangement has its limitations; but under it the needs of nearly all children can be met. The advantages of such an organization may be summarized as follows:

- (1) It presents very few administrative problems.
- (2) There is opportunity for a thorough study and understanding of each child.
- (3) It provides uninterrupted time for continuous work.

¹*Suggestions with Regard to Some Persistent Elementary School Problems*, Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. XXV, No. 1, January, 1949.

- (4) It avoids frequent promotion upheavals and wasted time and effort resulting from frequent transfers from teacher to teacher.
- (5) It gives an opportunity to provide for individual differences and varying rates of growth and to adapt the programme to meet the known needs of the child.
- (6) It makes retardation or acceleration of progress of pupils unnecessary.

Implications for the Secondary School

49. Children will normally enter a secondary school at about age 12, and attend for four years until the completion of the secondary school stage or at least until the upper limit of the age of compulsory school attendance has been reached. Except in unusual circumstances, the vast majority of children will complete the secondary school programme; the ten years of compulsory attendance extend over the period which will normally be required for completion of the elementary and secondary school programmes.

50. Two salient features of secondary school education are worthy of special note: the period corresponds to that of early adolescence; and for many children it will be the final stage of formal education. It is because of the marked changes in early adolescence that we have recommended that a second stage of education begin at about age 12, which will coincide for most children with the beginning of adolescence, and extend to about age 16, when the majority are physiologically mature. Since many children will leave school at the end of this stage, the programme must be so arranged that instruction in the essentials required of all citizens is offered in secondary schools. A major purpose must be the acquisition of indispensable knowledge, skills, and attitudes, that is, education for life. Of those leaving, many will enter the field of employment, and others will continue their education in a specialized field. Accordingly, all must be allowed to take optional courses affording them an opportunity to explore various avenues leading either to further specialized training or to vocations.

51. Because of this, it is more difficult to arrange suitable programmes to meet individual differences in the new secondary schools than it is in the new elementary schools. As noted previously, individual differences are greater at this stage and become a serious problem to those who arrange the school programme. Ability of students to learn diverges so widely that it becomes impossible to cope satisfactorily with its variations within the same classroom. Moreover, children who up to this point may have been in the same classroom will at this stage select different options and pursue what are, in effect, different programmes. In any case, the exploratory courses in vocational and scientific fields cannot be offered in each classroom; the need for special equipment is alone sufficient to make this impossible.

52. A radical and sudden departure from the procedures of the elementary school is inadvisable, and is unnecessary in the first and second

years of the new secondary school. Nearly all the evidence on the subject strongly supports the practice of assigning students to a "home-room" and a "home-room" teacher, where they will receive instruction in the majority of subjects. Only in subjects such as general science, home economics, industrial arts, physical education, and possibly music, need the students be re-classified and assigned in groups to other teachers who will be responsible for these subjects only. This general arrangement should be continued throughout the secondary school, being modified as the number of optional courses increases, so that the close pupil-teacher relationships may not be broken and responsibility for the programme of each student may be assigned to one particular teacher. We are inclined to favour a similar arrangement for the final two years; but we realize that some other procedure, such as the one in which certain teachers are given responsibility for student-counselling, may prove to be more efficient and desirable.

53. The major problem of the secondary schools, then, will be to arrange for each student a course suitable to his attainments, aptitudes, interests, and abilities, and, at the same time, to form groups of reasonable size and homogeneity for teaching purposes. A minor problem arises in connection with this major one. How are transfers from one course to another to be arranged when the original classification is found to be in error? Error, it is freely admitted by all authorities, may well be discovered in a relatively few but still substantial number of cases.

54. One fact is clear: children differ so widely in accomplishment, needs, interests, and abilities that they cannot pursue a common course in secondary schools. We can see no alternative to a classification of students into at least three groups or streams for teaching and administrative purposes: below average, average, and above average. For each group or stream, a separate general programme will have to be arranged. A student will pursue the programme of his group throughout the secondary school. Arrangements must be made to permit his immediate transfer from one stream to another, particularly in the first two years of the secondary school course, if it becomes evident that his development can thereby be promoted.

55. We are fully aware of the debatable features of this procedure and of the objections of parents and others to any system of classification of students. The system means that, upon completion of the secondary school stage, achievement of students will vary as widely as do ability and aptitude. But this does not destroy the value of the practice if we do not blind our eyes to the facts concerning child growth and development, and if we are sincere in our desire to provide the fullest possible opportunity for the all-round development of each child.

Implications for Further Education

56. At the stage of further education, where specialization in one of the major fields is the aim, teachers will instruct only in the subject or subjects

in which they are specially qualified, and students will receive instruction from a number of teachers. The practice of having a "home-room" and a "home-room teacher" cannot operate in view of the specialized nature of the course. Consideration should be given to the advisability of assigning to each teacher responsibility for the programmes of a number of students.

57. The major factor determining progress will be achievement, evaluated not in terms of individual capacity but in relation to specified standards. The purpose is to have uniform and comparable standards of accomplishment and to measure, in relation to these standards, the competence of graduates of each specialized field. The students will already have demonstrated their ability to profit from advanced work, and they will have voluntarily chosen to continue their education. Some will later seek entrance to university, but the majority will bring their formal education to a close during, or at the end of, this stage. In most cases, therefore, the latter will choose either a general course or a course in some special vocational field. Students will be selected: firstly, on the basis of a personal choice of a major field by the student and his parents; and, secondly, on the basis of a qualifying examination for entrance to the elected course. After admission, they will be required to continue to meet high standards of achievement and performance. Only those who demonstrate their ability will be permitted to continue, thus ensuring competence in the graduates of such specialized courses. Moreover, while a student may transfer from course to course, he will be required, regardless of the work he has taken, to complete those elective specialized courses (or their equivalent) of the option to which he wishes to transfer.

58. Each student will have an individual programme designed to meet his needs, interests, abilities, and aptitudes. Normally, a number of students will elect the same course or series of courses, and teaching in groups will be the normal procedure. However, in the science and vocational courses the number of pupils per teacher should be greatly reduced; the nature of such courses and the special equipment required in them make it necessary to approach as closely as possible to individual instruction. At this level there will be very little need for external motivation. A mastery of subject-matter and skills in related fields is essential; and supervised study, together with laboratory methods, will be widely used.

THE MEASUREMENT OF PUPIL GROWTH

59. Our view of the aims of education requires that teachers and others conduct a continuing evaluation of all aspects of the growth of each child. As child growth is complex, the measuring of it presents some difficult problems. At present, objective measurement of all aspects of growth is not always possible. This is particularly the case in the fields of social and moral development, although it holds true also for other fields. Yet these two fields are of the utmost importance; it is there that the inculcation of atti-

tudes and ideals leading to worthy behaviour provides a basis for citizenship.

60. In the field of physical and motor development, there are numerous objective measurements, such as those relating to height, weight, vision, and hearing. Measurement of physical growth has often been directed to the detection of illness and defects, not to an evaluation of what might be termed normal growth and health. If we are to assist pupils in this aspect of their growth, we cannot proceed on the basis of a simple classification of children as "sick" and "not sick", but need a continuous scale showing at least the major gradations of health. With the help of this, the development of an individual may be assessed and, if necessary, remedial procedures and treatment provided to ensure optimum growth and general well-being. This is a burden which cannot properly be added, in its entirety, to the growing list shouldered by educational authorities. As we state in a later chapter, it should be primarily the responsibility of local, provincial, and federal health authorities. However, the school must also make its contribution, although it must play a secondary role. Even the best educational provisions may be of no avail in the case of those children who "are in poor condition physically, nutritionally, emotionally and are just able to carry on by dragging themselves along from day to day . . ."¹

61. There must be co-operation between school and health authorities to the end that both may effectively assist in the evaluation and promotion of the health of each child. It is encouraging to note an increasing interest in this field, but much remains to be done. Complete information on the influence exerted by such factors as motor development, nutrition, metabolism, and structure of the brain and nervous system, on the learning of the so-called "school" subjects is not available. It is difficult to answer apparently simple questions which are very much to the fore at the moment: Should meals and supplementary feedings be provided for children in school? What type of meals and supplementary feedings shall be given? Shall the meals be given to all children or only to a few? What will be their effect on the physical, mental, social, and moral growth of children? Strange as it may seem, these questions cannot be answered on the basis of knowledge at present available: in the case of some there is no evidence; in no case has decisive evidence been produced.

62. The field of social and emotional growth is frequently referred to as that of *mental* health, implying a contrast between basic psychological and basic physical needs. A generally accepted classification² lists the emotional needs as emotional security (affection and belonging), independence, achievement, recognition (social approval), and self-esteem. It defines social need as the need to develop "ability to live with others in a co-operative

¹Brief 51, *Physical and Health Education*, submitted by Dr. E. Stanley Ryerson, Director, School of Physical and Health Education, University of Toronto.

²Brief 24, *Mental Hygiene*, submitted by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene (Canada).

and worthy way". Adequate satisfaction for all these needs, which will ensure healthy social and emotional growth, must be provided in the school as well as in the home and community. In addition, preventive and remedial measures must be instituted to prevent or correct the maladjustment which leads to acute unhappiness, delinquency, and mental illness. It is generally recognized that there is a major problem in this field: in evidence submitted to us¹ it was estimated that perhaps not more than one-third of "... one hundred elementary school children selected at random ..." would reach the maximum possible efficiency and happiness in life.

63. It is one thing to recognize the need for the development of wholesome personalities, and even to identify and classify the basic psychological needs; it is quite another to evaluate the social and emotional growth of a particular child at any given time. The objective measurement and grading of "mental health" on a continuous scale is very difficult. Scientific techniques of many fields are employed in mental hygiene, such as those of psychiatry, psychology, and medicine; but many are designed for the detection of mental illness alone, not for the purpose we have in mind. In this field, perhaps more than in any other, we must rely upon the results of subjective measures, but there is dire need for objective and accurate measurement.

64. Since only a relatively small portion of a child's time is spent in school, complete responsibility for his social and emotional development cannot be placed upon the school. It is primarily the responsibility of the home, the church, and the community. Nevertheless, great assistance, and very much more than has ever been attempted in the majority of our publicly supported schools, can be rendered through the programme of the school. Attention has been limited, in the past, largely to achievement in intellectual studies. More attention must be paid, in future, to the inculcation of attitudes and ideals resulting in worthy behaviour. The evaluation of social and emotional growth must be accepted as a major responsibility of teachers and school authorities.

65. The field of mental or intellectual development has long been deemed to be the prerogative of the school. Society has delegated responsibility for formal education to the teacher, and "schooling" has been almost universally considered to be synonymous with mental development. A serious effort has been made by educationists to devise accurate and objective measurements of various aspects of mental growth. Complete success has not been achieved, however, despite popular belief in the infallibility of school examination results. Even today some of the measures used are invalid; very few have a high degree of accuracy; and far too many are highly subjective in nature. Nevertheless, real progress has been made and, despite the admitted weaknesses of the measuring instruments at pres-

¹*Ibid.*

ent available, they do enable a teacher to assess, with some confidence, the stage of mental growth attained by any particular child.

66. Mention has already been made of the measurement of innate ability, or intelligence, or learning capacity. There are a number of fairly satisfactory tests of this aspect of mental growth, both for the individual and for the group, and they are widely used in our schools. Their value is not now generally questioned, although misuse of them may upon occasion bring them into disrepute. The results in individual cases are sometimes highly inaccurate, and in all cases they need to be interpreted with considerable skill. Moreover, there is a need to analyze and define clearly what is meant by ability or capacity, or at least to determine which aspects of the complex are more pertinent to the school situation. However, where properly used, the tests now available do, in large measure, meet the need in this particular field.

67. Attention has more recently been focussed on the measurement of interests and aptitudes, which are, of course, closely associated with ability or capacity. Success in securing objective measurements of these phases of development has not been outstanding. Particularly in the field of interests, subjective measures are still largely employed. Aptitude testing is of great importance and shows some promise, although up to the present the results have been meagre and disappointing. Their predictive value, which is the prime consideration, is generally low. Nevertheless, in some areas, such as the measurement of reading readiness, very useful results have been obtained. Measurement of interest and aptitude is most important at the stage where specialized education is introduced, and here the results of such tests, combined with the information obtained from the records of progress in exploratory courses, are of inestimable value to the student, to the parents, and to the teacher or counsellor.

68. In all fields so far considered, therefore, at least a partial evaluation of pupil growth can be secured. In some fields, the data obtained will be objective and accurate; in others, they will be subjective and relatively inaccurate. For a significant number of aspects, the measurements that can be obtained are far from satisfactory. It is obvious that more attention needs to be paid to this problem, in universities and in the field.

School Examinations

69. Examinations will always be an important feature of the educational system. They are an assessment by school authorities of the results of one of their major endeavours or, as some think, of their major endeavour. They deserve discussion, therefore, at considerable length.

70. The value of any examination depends upon its validity and reliability. Validity is the degree of accuracy with which an examination measures what it is supposed to measure and is the most important criterion

by which an examination may be judged. It is probable that no examination is perfectly valid, and it is quite certain that the validity of many school examinations is quite low. For example, an examination often does no more than measure the extent to which a student has memorized a prescribed set of facts, whereas the study of the subject may certainly be presumed to have bestowed benefits other than the acquiring of certain items of information. In such cases, the examinations have little or nothing to do with the ultimate goals of instruction and, to that extent, lack validity. If school achievement is to be measured with any degree of accuracy, educators must devise examinations specifically designed to measure the degree to which the aims of the system of education have been realized.

71. Reliability is the degree of consistency with which examinations measure whatever they do measure. Measurement is reliable when results for the same pupil and in the same subject do not fluctuate widely from examination to examination. Pupils, parents, and employers have a faith in the fairness of school examinations which is not justified by the facts. Investigations have demonstrated beyond question that most school examinations are highly unreliable. For example, a boy who gets 85 marks on an examination in mathematics today may get 55 on a comparable examination tomorrow; and an English essay which one teacher values at 45, another teacher, equally competent, may value at 90. The unreliability of examinations arises in the main from two sources: the nature of the examination itself; and the scoring of it. Most examinations tend to be brief. Half-a-dozen questions, out of a possible hundred or more, may constitute an examination paper; and the candidate is, to a large extent, at the mercy of chance. Moreover, the student faces a hazard not only in the nature of the paper but also in the nature of the marking. A study conducted in England, for example, showed that examiners varied about as widely in evaluating essays as pupils varied in their ability to write them; the mark awarded to any particular essay depended almost as much on which examiner marked it as on which student wrote it.

72. The surest method of making examinations reliable is to make them long, thereby minimizing the effects of chance in the choice of examination questions, and to have them scored as objectively as possible, thereby eliminating the idiosyncrasies of those doing the marking. This latter is very difficult to achieve in the case of the traditional type of examination, commonly called the essay type, in which the student, in answering the questions, writes what is in effect a series of short essays. On the other hand, the objective-type tests are highly reliable: a very large number of questions can be answered in a relatively short period of time; and the scoring is perfectly objective. However, these tests have some serious weaknesses, more particularly from the point of view of validity; and there are certain areas, such as the measurement of ability to organize material logically and express ideals clearly and concisely, in which they are quite ineffec-

tive. A judicious combination of examinations of both types is the best solution, but objective-type tests deserve a wider use than is at present given them. As the preparation of valid and reliable school examinations requires considerable skill, more attention should be given in courses in education to this phase of a teacher's work.

73. In spite of the important part which examinations play in the school, very little reference was made to them in submissions to us. Even where reference was made, the matter usually had to do with the curriculum rather than with examinations *per se*. It was a surprise to us that so little attention was paid to the many useful purposes served by examinations in our educational system, or to their weaknesses and the outright sins committed through them. Indeed, many authorities consider the faults of examinations to be so grievous that they advocate a great curtailment in their use. An example of the baneful influence of written external examinations is well described in a recent report of the Advisory Council on Education in Scotland:

Scottish education is of adult stature, and we are inviting it to assume responsibilities and to show such initiative, inspirational leadership and bold experiment as go ill with the continued *dominance of the external examination*. For dominance we must call it. The evidence is, in our view, conclusive, and it is too strong to need exaggeration. We do not say that examinations are ruining secondary education in Scotland; *but they are gravely distorting it and narrowing its vision . . .*

The influence of examinations is three-fold. It affects the treatment of the examinable subjects themselves, tending always to exalt the written above the spoken, to magnify memory and mastery of fact at the expense of understanding and liveliness of mind. It depresses the status of the non-examinable, so that the aesthetic and creative side of education, with all its possibilities for human satisfaction and cultural enrichment, remains largely undeveloped and poorly esteemed. And lastly, the *examination which began as a means, becomes for many the end itself*. In the atmosphere created by this preoccupation with examination success, *it is difficult to think nobly of education, to see in it the endless quest of man's preparation for either society or solitude*. The cult of the examination has proved all too congenial to the hard practicality of the Scot, and *in excessive concern about livelihood, the art of living has tended to be forgotten*.¹

74. In view of such serious criticisms, we must examine with care the advantages and disadvantages of examinations and their use in the reorganized educational system. It could well be that in Ontario, as in Scotland, a series of external written examinations, imposed by an outside body, would have the effect of forming a rigid mould into which our educational system would be forced. The result would be uniformity and stereotyping, fatal alike in the development of individual pupils and to the achievement of the educational goals we have specified. But we must distinguish between external and internal school examinations. The former are set by

¹Scottish Education Department, *Secondary Education*, Edinburgh: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1947, p. 43. Italics ours.

some body outside the school to determine whether prescribed standards have been attained; they are associated, in most cases, with the award of certificates to "successful" students and with an indirect assessment of the work of an individual teacher or school. The latter are prepared and employed from time to time by the teacher to evaluate the work of his pupils.

75. Even the most rabid critic of examinations does not object to the internal school examination. It is an essential part of teaching method, a technique which teachers are encouraged to use. If properly used, it does not determine the aim, the content, or the emphasis of teaching, and is not generally accompanied by ill effects. If it is improperly employed, however, it may become a "local" external examination; in this event, it is to be roundly condemned. Ordinarily, of course, a teacher knows whether he is doing a superior or inferior job of instruction. But examinations, of one sort or another, are the only instruments by which he can, with any high degree of accuracy, measure the effectiveness of his teaching. From the results, he will learn which pupils are progressing satisfactorily and which will need additional help and encouragement if they are to succeed.

76. External examinations, as the name implies, are not part of the teaching procedure. Nevertheless, they may dominate not only the curriculum and courses of study but also teaching methods and practices. In the extreme case, all efforts in a school may be directed to the task of getting as many students as possible safely through the examinations. Such a concentration of attention upon them is difficult to avoid when they are used to assist in the maintenance of comparable standards of achievement from school to school. In that they tend to keep schools working roughly at the same level of efficiency, they must be applauded. But in that they tend to stereotype and standardize education generally, they should probably be condemned. Matriculation examinations, for example, may so focus the attention on prescribed courses of study that revisions of the curriculum, or even adaptations of courses of study, are discouraged. People who have only a vague idea of what matriculation really means assume that winning this certificate is the main goal of the high school student. This mass allegiance has made it extremely difficult for teachers and others to adapt courses of study to the wide diversity in the abilities and needs of pupils. When external examinations are designed in terms of the entrance requirements of another institution, such as a university, to which few of the students will proceed, and when no other measure of achievement or criterion of success is provided, the situation is aggravated. From this point of view, the criticism that in Ontario the entrance requirements of the universities dominate the entire secondary school programme is valid. Such a dominance is, of course, never intended, and it is deplored by educators in both universities and secondary schools; nevertheless, there is no doubt that, despite this fact, it continues to exist.

77. It must be remembered that examinations help to motivate both teacher and pupils. The desire for success and approval is so strong in human nature that it induces most students to prepare for examinations even when these are of an informal nature with no important consequences attendant on the results. In the case of external written examinations, however, this incentive exists, for many students, during only a few weeks before the final examinations, leading to cramming in a frenzied pre-examination effort. Needless to say, knowledge so acquired is transitory and readily evaporates. On the other hand, very undesirable habits of work may well be acquired. If examinations are to be fully utilized as incentives to study, they must be held frequently in order to guarantee that the efforts of students are spread over the full academic year. Only internal school examinations can be so arranged; and it is probable that the full effect, so far as incentive to study is concerned, can be secured without the use of external school examinations.

78. In the case of teachers, two very different effects of motivation through the use of school examinations must be noted. Internal school examinations are used by the teacher to improve his instructional procedures. External school examination results are used, either formally or informally, by pupils, principals, and others, in order to rate the teachers. Used in moderation, this may, in the case of some teachers, be necessary and have a salutary effect; but if it is carried to the extreme, it may cause all teachers to concentrate all their energies and ingenuity on the external school examinations. There are many contributions which teachers make toward the growth and well-being of their pupils; but some of the most important of these cannot be expected in any large measure to influence examination results. Hence they tend to be neglected where external school examinations dominate the educational system. The importance of such examinations in determining the reputation of the teacher tends to make him a drill-master, his attention focussed on a narrow goal, and his eyes blind to many of the most important benefits of education in the school. To see teachers preparing their students for external school examinations by taking them over the matriculation papers for the preceding fifteen years, by coaching them on the types of questions most likely to be met, and by teaching them the tricks of writing examinations, is not to see education at its best. It is because of these deleterious effects that some authorities would abolish external school examinations entirely.

79. Nevertheless, examination results do inform prospective employers, parents, and the pupil himself of progress and achievement. More than anyone else, the parent has a right to be made acquainted with the progress, or lack of it, that his child is making in school. Research has shown that pupils achieve more when they are told what progress they are making; this appears to be true whether the progress is good or bad. But for this

purpose, internal school examinations, being more frequent, are considerably more valuable than external school examinations. They would be more valuable, also, for prospective employers if standards were comparable from school to school. Since they are not, the employer normally gives preference to the results of external examinations. There is considerable evidence to indicate that, both in the professional and in the business world, the usefulness of these external examinations is being questioned. Experience in personnel selection in industry and commerce has amply demonstrated that school achievement is but one factor among many; that it has a much lower predictive value in regard to future success than is generally appreciated; and that other factors, particularly those related to personality, are more important. We may again quote the report on secondary education in Scotland:

Fortunately there are signs that some enlightened industrialists and business men are themselves beginning to doubt whether the familiar Certificate as at present awarded really answers their questions in regard to the products of the schools, whether indeed they have in the past been putting the right questions at all.¹

80. In the universities, also, there is some questioning of the practice of defining entrance requirements almost solely in terms of the results of external school examinations. Being aware of this, we examined the results of a number of research studies on this question. With the assistance of faculty members of the University of Toronto, and of the Department of Education, we compared the success of certain students at the end of the first year of a university course with the standing reported for the same students on the upper school examinations, and also with the marks, based on internal school examinations, reported by the principals of their schools. The results agreed with those reported for other similar studies: the predictive value of the upper school examination marks (in terms of success in the first year at university) is quite low, and it varies greatly from one subject to another. Moreover, although the internal school examination marks also have a low predictive value, they were at least as satisfactory, for the group we considered, as the marks obtained, at considerable effort and expense, in the upper school examinations. In some cases they were more satisfactory. It is evident that success at the university is only partly dependent upon previous school achievement, and that an undue emphasis or reliance upon previous academic achievement as a guide to a student's prospects in university studies is largely unwarranted.

81. The evidence makes it quite apparent that future success in industry, commerce, or the professions is partly determined, perhaps in some cases mainly determined, by factors other than academic achievement as measured by the traditional school examinations. Further, the evidence supports the conclusion that estimates based upon internal school examinations may be

¹Scottish Education Department, *Secondary Education*, Edinburgh: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1947, p. 44.

quite as valid and useful as those based upon external written examinations. As stated in the Scottish report on secondary education:

The results of research and the experience of examining bodies show that teachers are, as a rule, very accurate in placing their pupils in an order of merit; indeed, we are satisfied that in this respect the teacher's grading is more trustworthy than any other.¹

82. Naturally, these results cast doubt upon the validity of the traditional practice of using examination results as the sole criterion determining promotion from grade to grade and from institution to institution. They suggest that in determining promotion it is advisable to take other factors as well as examination results into consideration and to assess growth in all aspects of development. However, a good case can be made for the use of examinations, particularly internal school examinations, to facilitate guidance rather than to determine progress. Under an ideal scheme, a pupil would come under continual educational guidance; examinations would do no more than reveal his achievements and aptitudes, in order that he might be assisted in the choice of courses appropriate to his abilities and needs.

Recommendations

83. In the light of our discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of examinations, and in view of the nature and purposes of education at each stage of the educational system, it will be evident that the type of examination considered most suitable and the use to be made of examination results will be different in the different stages. With regard to the elementary and secondary school stages, which can in this connection be considered together, we recommend

- (a) *that, in nursery schools and kindergartens, no school examinations, internal or external, be employed;*
- (b) *that, in elementary and secondary schools, no system of formal, external school examinations be established;*
- (c) *that internal school examinations or tests be employed in determining progress in elementary and secondary schools;*
- (d) *that no general certificate or diploma be established to mark the completion of the elementary school programme;*
- (e) *that a Secondary School Graduation Diploma be awarded to each student who successfully completes the secondary school programme;*
- (f) *that the Secondary School Graduation Diploma*
 - (i) *be issued by the local education authority concerned;*
 - (ii) *show the name and location of the secondary school attended by the pupil;*
 - (iii) *show the nature and type of courses taken and standing*

¹*Ibid.*, pp. 44-45.

obtained in the final two years of the secondary school programme.

84. In junior colleges, where specialization along academic or vocational lines is the major aim, it is necessary that uniform standards be maintained. It is precisely at this point that internal school examinations are weakest: standards inevitably vary from school to school, indeed from teacher to teacher within a school; and the marks awarded cannot be directly compared. School marks may be "scaled" to secure a uniform standard, but this can be done only if some external criterion is available, and generally this is not the case. In our opinion, therefore, there is a need at this stage for a system of external written examinations, combined with internal school examinations. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that a system of annual, uniform, external examinations for entrance to junior colleges be established;*
- (b) *that the Minister of Education establish a Joint Junior College Entrance Examination Board, to be charged with the duty of supervising the conduct of these entrance examinations.*

It is essential that the fundamental purpose of "entrance" examinations be clearly understood. They are not "leaving" examinations, marking the successful completion of a stage of education, but "entrance" examinations, permitting successful candidates to enter a new stage of education. They are, in fact, qualifying examinations, designed to select those individuals who, in their chosen field, have demonstrated competence to undertake a specialized type of education in junior college. Students will, of course, normally sit for the junior college entrance examination during the last term of their secondary school programme; but this examination will be completely distinct from the internal school examinations upon which the award of a Secondary School Graduation Diploma will be based. The Diploma marks the completion of secondary school; it will not qualify for entrance to junior college.

85. We recommend, further,

that promotion from year to year within a junior college course and the awarding of a junior college graduation diploma be based upon the results of internal school examinations.

Thus, the "promotion" examinations within each junior college will be set and marked by the staff of the school. However, they will also be "selective" examinations, in the sense that only those students who demonstrate competence will be promoted. A student who, in the opinion of the staff, successfully completes a junior college course will be awarded a diploma by the local education authority concerned, upon recommendation by the principal of the junior college. The diploma will indicate the course taken and the standing attained. As there will be two possible terminal points in the junior college programme, we favour the establishment of two diplomas. Accordingly, we recommend

- (a) *that a Junior College Graduation Diploma be awarded, on application, to students successfully completing the first two years of a junior college course;*
- (b) *that a Junior College Honour Graduation Diploma be awarded to students successfully completing a three-year junior college course;*
- (c) *that Junior College Graduation Diplomas*
 - (i) *be issued by the local education authority concerned;*
 - (ii) *show the name and location of the junior college attended by the student;*
 - (iii) *show the course taken and standing obtained.*

86. External school examinations will presumably be required also for entrance to university.¹ The reasons for this are the same as those previously stated in the case of entrance to junior colleges. Since the junior college represents a terminal as well as an intermediate stage of education, and since not all courses will be directed toward university entrance, we cannot see how junior college graduation and university entrance requirements can be made identical. A forced union, or a process of equation, could very well be disastrous to both; or at least it might be satisfactory to neither. We prefer to leave the junior colleges relatively unhampered in their development and operation, and to have a body, such as a Joint University Entrance Examination Board, fix university entrance requirements and conduct university entrance examinations. Students who wish to proceed to university will, of course, take the university entrance examinations required; but the results will not determine the granting of a Junior College Graduation Diploma, nor will the latter necessarily provide entrance to university. Upon the matter of university entrance requirements and examinations, however, we cannot make specific recommendations since they are not within our terms of reference.

87. We have implied that the responsibility for entrance requirements and entrance examinations should be placed on the junior colleges and universities, not on the schools of the preceding stage or on the Department of Education. The respective examination boards may prefer an accrediting system rather than "entrance" examinations, or they may prefer a combination of both; but the responsibility would remain as we have suggested. This is essential if the aims we have stated are to be realized. Even with this system, care will have to be exercised to ensure that entrance examinations and requirements of junior colleges do not dominate the work of the new secondary schools, which would make it extremely difficult to realize the purpose of secondary education as we have defined it. Similarly, it would be regrettable if the work of the junior colleges were dominated by the entrance requirements of the universities. We strongly suggest that the

¹As university education is outside the terms of our reference, we wish to state that our recommendations are not intended to affect the right of each university to determine the requirements for entrance to its courses.

Department of Education, entrance examination boards, and other educational authorities, give serious consideration to the whole question of the purpose, type, and scope of external examinations in order that the true purposes of the schools may not be defeated through undue emphasis upon the preparation of candidates to meet the entrance requirements of a higher stage of education.

88. As the training in technical institutes and in the apprenticeship system will be highly specialized, admission to their courses should, in our opinion, be restricted to those candidates who have demonstrated their aptitude for, and ability to profit from, such training. Progress should be on a selective basis, and only those students who achieve success should be promoted. We recommend

- (a) *that each technical institute and apprenticeship board be given full control, subject to the approval of the Minister of Education, over its admissions and entrance requirements, examinations and promotions, and the awarding of its diplomas or certificates;*
- (b) *that, upon successful completion of a course, a student be awarded a certificate or diploma indicating the nature and extent of the course taken and the standing obtained.*

89. We mentioned earlier the importance of reporting regularly to parents upon a child's progress in school. At one time, these reports were based largely upon the results of written examinations. They now include information concerning attitudes, interests, and work habits. Not only do such reports inform the parent, but they also assist the student to appraise himself. They encourage the teacher to study each student, and they enable the home and the school to co-operate in assisting the pupil. Appraising and reporting student progress is, therefore, an essential part of the programme of each school. Accordingly, we recommend

- (a) *that the present departmental regulations, requiring that a report on pupil progress be made to parents each school term, be continued;*
- (b) *that such progress reports to parents indicate the pupil's all-round achievements, not only the results of his written examinations.*

STUDENT COUNSELLING

90. The purpose of student counselling is to assist the child to evaluate his own capabilities and disabilities, to secure information concerning educational and occupational opportunities, and to make wise choices. Without it, a child may well pursue an uncharted course and meander through school undirected by any clear vision of a goal. Assisted by it, he may select a goal and chart a profitable course.

91. Teachers have always counselled and assisted their students, generally informally and more or less successfully. It may well be asked if a continuance of this practice is not sufficient. Under the conditions of little

more than a generation ago, it may well have been sufficient. But the occupational world has become very complex; our schools offer not one course, but a wide variety of courses; and the aims of education have changed. Under such circumstances, it is too much to expect young people to make wise choices unaided, and to expect the teacher, without assistance, to provide the necessary counselling and information, particularly when he may teach not a single group of boys and girls but a single subject to a very large number of classes. Moreover, the responsibility of the teacher has been broadened to include assistance in all aspects of growth. As the educational circumstances become more complex, the need for a special and more systematic arrangement for counselling becomes evident. In its development, the importance of retaining the intimate pupil-teacher relationship must always be kept in mind.

92. In nursery schools, kindergartens, and the new elementary school, counselling will be almost wholly the task of the teacher. Some expert assistance will be needed in the detection, diagnosis, and treatment of cases of maladjustment. This should be secured by the teacher from the health service and child guidance clinic. But, in the main, counselling at this stage can adequately, and perhaps best, be given by the teacher. The arrangement of junior and senior divisions provides him with a period of three years with the same group of children, and thus an ample opportunity to study and assist each child. The problems met at this level will not be concerned with occupational or vocational guidance, but it is essential that the information and records collected by the teacher be kept in order and made available to teachers at a later stage. At least a substantial beginning should be made in the compiling of comprehensive and continuing records. By the end of the elementary school, sufficient information should have been collected to be of invaluable assistance in the classification of students at the secondary school stage and in the arrangement of suitable programmes of study. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that, in the stage of elementary education, student counselling be the responsibility of the home-room teacher, with such expert assistance as may be necessary from personnel of health services and child guidance clinics;*
- (b) *that a uniform, individual, cumulative form for recording data relating to the progress of a pupil through all stages of his education be authorized by the Minister of Education;*
- (c) *that, in elementary schools, the information for the cumulative record be entered by the home-room teacher.*

93. In the new secondary schools, student counselling will continue to be largely the responsibility of the home-room teacher, but his endeavours should be supplemented by the services of specially trained personnel. The period in secondary school will be a terminal stage for a very large number of students, each of whom, before entering a field of employment, will need

considerable occupational information. A student should also be provided with information concerning his aptitudes, occupational fitness, etc., to enable him to choose wisely. In addition, since the programme of the secondary school will be arranged to permit exploration along academic and vocational lines, students will need assistance in the selection of courses suited to their interests and needs. Under these circumstances, in our opinion, appointment to the staff of each secondary school of at least one teacher specially qualified to counsel students is warranted. Home-room teachers should, of course, consult and co-operate with the counsellor.

94. Another task of the counsellor will be the maintenance of continuing records of students and of graduates in employment. Combined with this will be placement services for new graduates, and possibly also for graduates of earlier years. It is not intended that the full responsibility for placement and follow-up should be placed upon the school. This would mean a duplication of the efforts of the National Employment Service. But the responsibility of the school toward a student does not end on his graduation; and school authorities may gain most helpful information concerning the value and effectiveness of various aspects of their programme through a study of the careers of graduates. We have in mind that the schools, through teachers and counsellors, should assist by sharing in the placement of graduates and making follow-up studies of graduates' experiences. In this way, they can effectively assist students, employers, and themselves, and thus more fully discharge their responsibility for the all-round development of each child.

95. We therefore recommend

that, in secondary schools,

- (i) *counselling continue to be a responsibility of the home-room teacher;*
- (ii) *specially qualified counsellors be appointed to the staff, and be charged with responsibility for vocational guidance and for supplementing the efforts of home-room teachers;*
- (iii) *individual cumulative records be continued, and include information relating to aptitudes and to occupational interests and fitness;*
- (iv) *information relating to occupations, including the professions and the educational requirements thereof, be made available to each student;*
- (v) *school authorities co-operate in the provision of placement services and in follow-up studies of graduates.*

96. At the stage of further education, students will have selected the specialized courses they wish to pursue; they will be more mature and better informed; and the need for the full programme of counselling will no longer exist. Nevertheless, there will be a continuing need to provide, especially in junior colleges, occupational information and assessment of special aptitudes and abilities. Naturally, this will include information and advice concerning further education, along academic and technical lines,

in universities, technical institutes, and in apprenticeship training. It will also include placement services and follow-up studies of graduates. At this stage, specially qualified teachers should be appointed and given responsibility for counselling services. We recommend

that, in junior colleges,

- (i) *specially qualified counsellors be appointed to the staff, and be charged with responsibility for all student counselling;*
- (ii) *individual cumulative records be continued;*
- (iii) *information relating to occupations, including semi-professional and professional, and the requisite educational qualifications thereof, be made available to each student;*
- (iv) *the school authorities, through the counsellor, co-operate in the provision of placement services and in follow-up studies of graduates.*

97. Although we recognize the need for counselling services in our schools, and are convinced of their value, we are more than a little disquieted by the prevalence of a naive belief in their universal efficacy, and by the tendency, on the part of some teachers, to transfer to the counsellor all responsibility for assisting and advising students. It must be recognized that counselling services in schools will not answer all the questions and solve all the problems of the students and of the school. Nor is it possible, or advisable, to transfer to the special counsellor all the duties and responsibilities of the teacher in relation to counselling, which is a special service intended to supplement, not to supplant, the work of the teacher. It is not intended to weaken the relationship between the teacher and the pupil. The assistance which can be rendered through counselling is definitely limited. There are two reasons for this. Firstly, the choices made are ultimately the responsibility of the child and his parents, not of the school and counsellor. Secondly, the predictive value of any of the measures which are available at present, or are likely to be developed in the immediate future, is so low that definite and specific direction cannot be given toward any one avenue or occupation. Perhaps fortunately, the results for any particular student are seldom conclusive; in most cases they are indicative only. Hence, the task of the counsellor is to place the information, and his interpretation of it, before the pupil and his parents and, when requested, to assist them in making their decision.

CHAPTER V

PROGRAMMES FOR THE SCHOOLS OF THE REORGANIZED EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

INTRODUCTION

1. Before proceeding to a discussion of our suggested school programme, it will be useful to review briefly some of the weaknesses of the programme as it exists today, although to do so is to invite misinterpretation. In pointing out defects and suggesting changes, we may give the impression that many of the present practices in our schools are without value. Nothing could be further from the truth. Much in the schools is worthy of praise and preservation. While at no time have there been revolutionary changes, neither has there been stagnation; there is ample evidence that over the years there has been steady improvement in staffing, in curriculum, and in courses of study. A most heartening sign is the general lack of complacency on the part of all concerned with the operation of our schools and an evident desire to continue the improvement of our educational system.

2. The major criticisms registered with us in regard to the school programme were concerned with the final two years of the elementary school and with the work of the secondary school in general. But, while admitting the validity of these criticisms, we must not overlook the fact that some specific problems and the general feeling of discontent in relation to the present programme have their source in the extension of general education to all children. To educate a select few is a relatively simple matter; to educate all children, with their wide diversity in abilities and interests, is a complex task. Experience has served to develop an appreciation of the immensity of the task and to clarify the nature of the associated problems. Actual progress in solving them has, however, been slow, hampered by an economic depression of unprecedented severity, and by two World Wars.

3. The principle of education for all children has been put into effect mainly through the laws relating to compulsory school attendance. The effectiveness of these is a matter of great importance. Information relating to school attendance and "years of schooling" was collected at the 1941 census of Canada, and some of the pertinent data are given in the following two Tables.

4. In Table 1, data are given relating to the number of “years of schooling” reported for the age group 20-24 years in Ontario. The figures for rural and urban areas are listed separately. This age group has been selected because those in it had an opportunity, by age 20, to complete the elementary and secondary school courses, and because the attendance Acts were in force before the members of the group entered school. It will be seen that approximately 10 per cent of the total group attended school for less than ten years. Unsatisfactory as the position is for urban centres, it is very much worse for rural areas. For example, two-thirds or more of the rural group attended school for less than ten years.

TABLE 1
YEARS OF SCHOOLING (ONTARIO) RURAL AND URBAN^a
AGE GROUP: 20-24 YEARS, 1941

Age Group 20-24 Years	Total ^b	Years of Schooling						
		Under 5	5-6	7-8	9-10	11-12	13-16	17 +
Rural	111,701	4,698	13,558	42,690	25,295	14,537	6,624	364
Urban	212,288	2,725	8,798	45,793	58,932	54,976	27,219	1,589
TOTAL	323,989	7,423	22,356	88,483	84,227	69,513	33,843	1,953

^aDominion Bureau of Statistics, Eighth Census of Canada, 1941, Population Bulletin, No. C-5. (These data are the latest available.)
^bIncludes persons with years of schooling not stated.

5. Table 2 gives the attendance for each age group, by single years of age. Figures for rural and urban areas are again shown separately. It will be seen that children in rural areas tend to begin school at a later age, and to leave school at an earlier age, than children in urban areas. Most noticeable and significant is the fact that from age 14 onward children leave school in ever increasing numbers, especially in rural areas. This supports the criticism that too many children spend too few years in school to be fitted to discharge fully their obligations as citizens.

6. But this is not the complete story. Nearly two-thirds of all children were leaving the elementary school without obtaining high school entrance standing.¹ A student might attend an elementary school for ten years without completing the work of grade VIII. The most recent figures relating to pupil progress through school in Ontario are given in Table 3: of 100 pupils who begin school life, 67 pass the high school entrance examination, and 61 enter grade IX. The decrease in the proportion of children at successive educational levels is marked. The wastage may well be considered excessive and a cause for grave concern.

¹These examinations, formerly prepared and set by the Department of Education for students in grade VIII, were discontinued in 1949.

7. Of primary importance in relation to curricula and courses of study is the effect of the complete break between the programmes for elementary and secondary schools. Lack of comprehensive planning in this field has

TABLE 2

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE IN ONTARIO—RURAL AND URBAN SCHOOLS—1941^a

Age	Sex	Rural			Urban		
		Population	Number at School	Percentage at School	Population	Number at School	Percentage at School
5	M	13,576	793	5.8	16,391	3,214	19.6
	F	13,076	935	7.2	16,066	3,201	19.9
6	M	13,618	6,611	48.5	16,571	11,791	71.2
	F	12,925	6,670	51.6	16,207	11,484	70.9
7	M	13,192	11,778	89.3	16,313	15,602	95.6
	F	12,742	11,532	90.5	16,170	15,509	95.9
8	M	13,796	13,138	95.2	17,611	17,023	96.7
	F	13,410	12,860	95.9	17,305	16,968	98.1
9	M	13,813	13,756	99.6	18,028	17,808	98.8
	F	13,130	12,706	96.8	17,575	17,330	98.6
10	M	14,410	13,956	96.8	19,066	18,743	98.3
	F	13,615	13,208	97.0	18,873	18,570	98.4
11	M	13,680	13,170	96.3	18,475	18,149	98.2
	F	13,205	12,872	97.5	18,553	18,271	98.5
12	M	14,201	14,201	100.0	18,848	18,583	98.6
	F	13,539	13,121	96.9	18,626	18,271	98.1
13	M	14,145	13,320	94.2	18,731	18,284	97.6
	F	13,239	12,595	95.1	18,921	18,518	97.9
14	M	14,318	10,985	76.7	18,731	17,906	95.6
	F	13,087	10,875	83.1	18,541	17,734	95.6
15	M	14,162	8,073	57.0	18,706	16,029	85.7
	F	13,089	8,284	63.3	19,065	16,411	86.1
16	M	14,517	4,978	34.3	20,100	11,952	59.5
	F	12,899	5,825	45.2	20,709	12,946	62.5
17	M	13,859	2,471	17.8	20,278	7,548	37.2
	F	12,072	3,683	30.5	20,799	8,457	40.7
18	M	13,940	1,740	12.5	20,967	4,925	23.5
	F	11,830	2,343	19.8	22,629	5,328	23.5
19	M	13,623	1,162	8.5	21,980	3,213	14.6
	F	10,781	1,239	11.5	23,110	2,955	12.8
20	M	13,273	618	4.7	21,784	2,149	9.9
	F	10,716	546	5.1	23,490	1,578	6.7
21	M	13,327	447	3.4	22,263	1,468	6.6
	F	10,679	293	2.7	23,912	919	3.8
22	M	11,791	291	2.5	18,572	984	5.3
	F	9,792	197	2.0	20,497	494	2.4
23	M	11,297	237	2.1	19,423	817	4.2
	F	9,576	93	1.0	20,979	263	1.3
24	M	11,538	176	1.5	20,311	537	2.6
	F	9,712	65	.7	21,057	159	.8

^aDominion Bureau of Statistics, Eighth Census of Canada, 1941, Population Bulletin No. C-5. (These data are the latest available.)

accentuated the difference between elementary and secondary education. Although the programme for elementary schools includes a thoughtful statement of general and specific aims, the academic secondary school programme contains, in this connection, only some unrelated lists of aims for particular

courses. A very brief statement of this kind is given for each type of vocational school, and, in general, for the vocational courses. A clear statement of aims for each stage of the educational system, which would assist in the co-ordination of the various stages, is greatly to be desired.

8. In provision for individual differences there is a marked contrast between elementary and secondary schools, both in prescribed programmes and in practice. In the former schools, the programmes of studies have specifically recognized the problems created by these differences and per-

TABLE 3
PUPIL PROGRESS THROUGH ENTIRE SCHOOL LIFE^a

<i>School Level</i>	<i>Proportion</i>
Begin school life	100
Pass high school entrance	67
Enter grade IX	61
Enter grade X	56
Enter grade XI	46
Complete grade XII	21
Complete grade XIII	13
Enter university	4

^a*Report of the Minister of Education, Province of Ontario, 1948, p. 107.*

mit necessary adaptations in content of courses. The practices in these schools, with a few exceptions in the case of weaker teachers, are at present fairly satisfactory. With the changes in organization and procedure which we recommend, we are confident that the needs of pupils will be met, as far as practicable, in the new elementary schools. In secondary schools, until the school year 1950-51, one general course was provided for grade IX, with certain exceptions for vocational schools, to be followed by all pupils. In grades X, XI, and XII, however, there are a number of alternative courses (e.g. general, industrial or agricultural, home economics, commercial, art), within each of which the student may select at least one optional subject and, in the general course, four or five. To this extent, there is provision for individual differences; but the courses of study are rigidly prescribed in detail, and teachers have little opportunity to adapt the content to the ability, capacity, and interests of students. This may not have been the intention—the occasional use of the word “suggested” would tend to indicate otherwise—but the general impression gained is that of a rigidly prescribed course.

9. This impression is strengthened by an examination of practice. In many secondary schools there appears to be no systematic attempt to adapt the courses to the needs of students, even though many teachers sincerely attempt to do so, and though administrative arrangements in some schools permit homogeneous grouping of pupils, the organization of special classes,

and other means designed to meet problems of individual differences. Another omission, unavoidable though it may be under existing circumstances, is equally serious: except in secondary schools in large urban centres, neither alternative courses nor a variety of optional subjects are offered. The position in regard to the teaching of classics, for example, was brought forcibly to our attention in Brief 120, submitted by the Department of Classics, University of Toronto. Many subjects of the general course and of the vocational courses are in the same position. The situation may be thus summarized: numerous optional subjects are listed on the prescribed curriculum; but, in many schools, only a few are included in the programme. This fact is borne out by the middle school and upper school examination statistics for June, 1948,¹ which show that relatively few students took any examination subjects other than English, history, mathematics, science, French, and Latin.

10. It might well be argued that, in practice, there is little more adaptation and selection of courses under our present programme than there was in the grammar schools of our forefathers. This "choice" of subjects suggests only one conclusion: in Ontario, as elsewhere, the work of the secondary schools is dominated by requirements for entrance to the university. For the few who continue their education at university this is perhaps not unreasonable; but for the vast majority of students who, as shown by Table 3, complete their formal education during, or at the end of, the secondary school stage, the effect is bad. The needs of members of the latter group are so different from those of the former that no common course, crowned by uniform external school examinations, can do justice to both.

11. We have noted evidence in the schools of attempts to measure individual differences, to study child behaviour and development, and to conduct experiments and research. That these attempts are not more general may be attributed to the fact that energies have been expended in meeting the demands of a rapidly expanding educational system and in providing at least a minimum of education for all children. Nor have the economic and social conditions of the last two decades encouraged the launching of new projects or the provision of more than bare essentials. Nevertheless, our educational system is now at a stage where local education authorities and teachers must more systematically initiate, and assist in, the study of child development and individual differences. They must develop research and experimentation, so that the educational system may be continuously improved.

Co-education

12. It is convenient to consider briefly, at this point, the general question as to whether boys and girls should be educated separately or together. The general policy in Great Britain and elsewhere in Europe has been to

¹*Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1948.* p. 193.

educate the sexes separately, more particularly at the secondary school level, although in some countries separate provisions are made in elementary schools also. On this continent, co-education became firmly established during the nineteenth century and is the general practice in all stages of the educational system, with the exceptions mainly in private schools.

13. In newer communities, and in areas of widely dispersed population, the segregation of boys from girls in school is not economically feasible. Indeed, it is practicable in very few parts of our province outside the larger urban centres. Whether or not it is desirable has never been satisfactorily determined. No thorough study of the effects of either co-education or segregation on the educational progress and personal development of students seems to have been made. Experience has demonstrated, however, that co-education has produced none of the dire results which were predicted at the time of its inception on this continent. Since there do not seem to be any marked and sustained differences between the sexes in general mental ability and intellectual development, we believe that it is not necessary to provide distinct curricula for boys and girls. On the other hand, standards and aims will differ in physical and vocational education, and the content of the courses may differ in social or civic education. But programmes specifically adapted to meet their particular needs may be selected by boys and girls from the optional courses in the new secondary schools, and from the highly specialized courses of the new junior colleges. This differentiation can be provided in the same school, some courses being taken in common and others separately. From the point of view of administration and cost, therefore, the weight of evidence is in favour of co-education.

14. Thus it would seem that the question of the desirability or otherwise of co-education must be determined on the basis of its effect on social, emotional, and moral development. Regarding this effect, we could find no direct evidence. Some claim that co-education prevents the development of some desirable feminine qualities in girls and some virile qualities in boys. Others deny this, and claim that co-educational schools have a more wholesome atmosphere than those where there is segregation. Apart from this conflict of opinion, it is generally accepted that co-education has had no positive harmful effects. It also seems natural to educate boys and girls together: they grow up together in the home; and they will associate together after school hours. It seems probable that they will make the necessary social adjustments and achieve their natural developments better without segregation.

15. Accordingly we recommend

that the general practice of educating boys and girls together in our publicly supported schools be continued.

We suggest, however, that local education authorities be permitted to make provision for segregation of the sexes, if they desire to do so and if segrega-

tion is economically feasible. Such experimental variations will give opportunities for the study and investigation of the relative merits and demerits of segregation and co-education.

THE CURRICULUM

16. We do not propose to outline in detail the curricula and courses of study for the reorganized educational system. We do not think it desirable for us to attempt this task; and we are convinced that, if our schools are to meet individual needs, the curricula and courses of study should be suggestive rather than narrowly prescriptive, and should be developed through co-operative effort by all who are concerned with the educational development of the child. This method of procedure is necessary if we are to promote in our schools that spirit of initiative, experiment, and co-operation which should characterize education in a democracy.

17. We consider it desirable, however, to provide some guidance to those whose responsibility it will be to formulate the detailed arrangement of curricula and courses of study. Accordingly, we indicate the general nature of a programme which we believe will realize the aims of education which we have outlined. In doing so, we have considered the educational system as a whole; we have excepted only the programmes of special education and the adaptations of the programme for those elementary schools in which French will be a subject of study and language of instruction and communication with the permission of the Minister of Education, to which special attention will be given later. Within these limits, we present the broad outlines of curricula for each stage of the reorganized educational system.

A. NURSERY SCHOOLS AND KINDERGARTENS

18. At this level, in particular, education in school supplements training in the home, and close co-ordination should be effected. Formal education for very young children can be supported only if it serves:

- (a) to supplement the opportunities for development which are found in the good home and, where necessary, to remedy deficiencies of the home environment; and
- (b) to establish a firm foundation for the continuing partnership between home and school.

19. A major aim is to enable the child at an early age to become less dependent. This will be secured through the establishment of effective personal and social habits and the inculcation of attitudes of acceptance, co-operation, and responsibility. More specifically, the child should acquire the basic routines of health and behaviour, gain control to some extent over his actions and conduct, and find pleasure in the companionship of his fellows and security in the school environment. This is predominantly a "socializing" period, with programmes consisting mainly of activities de-

signed to develop acceptable behaviour patterns. In addition, however, the training in kindergarten, whether it is a continuation of the training in nursery school or an initial school experience, must be designed to serve as an introduction, through informal activities, to the more formal instruction of the early grades of the elementary school.

20. There are no formal curricula and courses of study for this level, if we interpret these in the usual sense with reference to subjects and subject-matter content. The programme directly or indirectly includes “subjects” such as health and physical education, English, social studies, natural science, arithmetic, music, and art. But instruction in subject-matter is indirect rather than formal, and learning seems, at first glance, to be incidental to an activity carried on for some other purpose. In arithmetic, for example, the concept of time may be developed in connection with special activities which occur at different times of the day and year. Language development, as another instance, is attained through imitation, by using stories and conversations; it results, incidentally, in the beginning of an appreciation of both poetry and prose. The nature and extent of the programme are indicated in the following outline of major aims:

- (1) To assist in the development of fundamental habits of living through the acquisition of proper health habits associated with rest, play and exercise, eating, and toilet practices.
- (2) To develop and improve the use of language through listening to stories told by the teacher, relating personal experiences, looking at and discussing pictures, and communicating with fellow-pupils in play and other school situations; and gradually to develop “reading readiness” through these and similar exercises and experiences.
- (3) To assist informally in the growth of the number sense through games and special activities appropriate to particular times of the day and seasons.
- (4) To introduce aesthetic training by learning and appreciating simple tunes and rhythms; and, in art, by enlarging the appreciation and thoughtful use of different kinds of materials.
- (5) To assist moral and spiritual development through morning prayer, sacred songs, verse speaking, and Bible stories.
- (6) To provide an environment in which the child may develop a feeling of security and gain a sense of “belonging”, so that he becomes less and less dependent on the teacher.
- (7) To develop in the child a feeling of adequacy in meeting ordinary situations appropriate to his age by mastering the use of, and gaining confidence in his ability to handle, selected play equipment.
- (8) To teach the child to work and play with others of his own age in an acceptable manner; to respect the rights of others and to await his turn; to select materials for games and activities, to use them, and then to replace them in their storage places.

21. Naturally, no formal instruction in subjects or subject-matter content should be given. The programme, while organized, should be largely informal, and the periods, divided into routine and play, should be brief. The former are designed to develop efficient habits and to establish attitudes of acceptance, co-operation, and responsibility in routines such as those relating to the cloakroom, washing, toilet, meals, and rest. The latter, through self-directed play in the classroom or on the playground and through the organized activities of the group, are designed to develop physical and social skills, attitudes, and interest in other children and enjoyment of their company, so as to promote proper growth of personality. One additional aim will be the gradual preparation of the child, particularly in language and arithmetic, for entrance to the first grade of the elementary school. But, as stated earlier, little is gained and much may be lost through the premature introduction of formal instruction.

B. ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

22. The elementary schools in the proposed reorganization will normally enrol children of ages 6 to 12. The curriculum will be organized on a six-grade basis, divided into junior and senior divisions each of three years' duration. It will constitute the first part of what is generally known as formal education; but, although it is the basis of all later education, it should not be regarded merely as a foundation. On the contrary, its purposes must be defined primarily in terms of the special needs and problems of this stage of the child's development.

23. In the junior division of the elementary school, a main aim will be to complete the gradual transition from the informal activities of the nursery school and kindergarten, or of the home, to the formal procedures followed in teaching the elements of reading, writing, and arithmetic. Hence, the methods and activities of the kindergarten will be followed in at least part of the first year of the junior division. In any case, formal education will not begin before approximately age 6, at which time school attendance will be compulsory and on a full-day basis. By the end of the junior division, children will have had instruction in the elements of reading, writing, and arithmetic, and in the elementary skills of art and music; and they will have been introduced to those concepts of social studies and natural science within their range of comprehension. Much the same programme will be continued in the senior division of the elementary school, with adaptations to correspond to changes in the needs of children and their increasing maturity, and with emphasis upon the development and consolidation of the basic skills of our culture. In this connection, we should like to make clear that in the development of the basic skills of language and arithmetic there can be no half-measures; the child, within the limits of his ability, must master them. The need for this proficiency is generally accepted. Unfortunately, experience has shown that its attainment may be

gravely impeded and postponed by the pursuit of tasks and activities which are less pedestrian and more immediately interesting to pupil and teacher alike.

24. We recommend

*that the curriculum for the junior and senior divisions of the elementary school comprise English, social studies, arithmetic, natural science, music, art, physical and health education, and religious education.*¹

The allotment of time for the different subjects and the construction of time-tables we have not deemed to be within our province. These are matters for professional experts to determine.

25. The aims of the curriculum of the elementary school must include the following, in addition to the general aims we have stated earlier:

- (1) To develop those fundamental skills of language, arithmetic, art, and music, which are appropriate to the ages of the children.
- (2) To develop the child's appreciation of language, art, and music, and to develop his ability to think and express himself in these fields.
- (3) To develop attitudes and skills valuable to all citizens, and to widen the child's interest in, and his understanding of, his social and physical environment.
- (4) To train for healthful living, for the acquisition of proper health habits, and for physical development through suitable exercise.
- (5) To assist in the growth of a feeling of adequacy, through informal activities and experiences.
- (6) To aid in the growth of self-direction, self-control, and the ability to engage in group activities which require planning by all members of the group.
- (7) To assist in spiritual development and in the inculcation of those Christian attitudes and ideals upon which our way of life is based.

26. Learning in school is facilitated, and incidentally made much more interesting and enjoyable, when instructional procedures are based upon the routines normally followed by children in daily life. This is a natural method of learning. Children generally play or work in a group of approximately the same age. Their play routine is not haphazard but, for children, well ordered. The members of the group decide through discussion what they wish to do; they develop plans for achieving their aims; and they assign some part of the undertaking to each child. Today, much of the instruction in an elementary school is based upon procedures that do not differ fundamentally from the natural play routine of children. The pupils' concentration, energy, and inventiveness are most impressive; their behaviour is in marked contrast with the listlessness and apathy frequently displayed by children in the classrooms of an earlier regime. It is true that the activities are controlled, directed, and frequently inspired, by the

¹A discussion of our proposals on English, social studies, and religious education may be found in the next chapter.

teacher, but the children accept the project as their own and, in carrying it out, display the zeal they normally do in play. Many of the "subjects" of the curriculum, such as reading, writing, arithmetic, and art, are part of the enterprise, although the children may not always realize that formal instruction is being given. Through this extremely useful teaching method, a skilful teacher can attain many of the purposes of the curriculum, particularly those associated with the skills of living and working together. But other aims cannot be fully attained through the use of this method alone: the fundamental skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic, for example, require more specific practice. And in some subjects, in which the content is arranged sequentially, the method may be extremely wasteful of the time of both teacher and pupils, especially in later stages of the educational system. Nevertheless, the principles of the project or enterprise method should be utilized as far as possible by the teacher in an elementary school. Additional and specific instruction may be required at any point. There is no single, infallible teaching method; each teacher must develop his own happy blend to attain the desired goals, in accordance with the abilities and needs of the children. Procedures must be adapted to allow pupils to proceed at their own rates of learning, and to provide for varying capabilities and individual differences.

C. SECONDARY SCHOOLS

27. As stated earlier, the four years of secondary school, beginning at approximately age 12, will correspond to the period of early adolescence, will extend generally to the end of the period of compulsory school attendance, and will be, for many children, the final stage of formal education. For these reasons, general education will be emphasized in the new secondary schools: English, social studies, physical and health education, and religious education or ethics will constitute the basic core for all years. In the first and second years, all subjects will be obligatory;¹ in the third and fourth years, however, there will be elective subjects introductory to specialized academic training, and exploratory vocational courses. The varied interests and capacities of pupils will be met through adaptations of the content of all subjects and, in the third and fourth years, through selection of optional subjects. Each student will be assisted to select the most suitable programme. The curriculum of the new secondary school will, of necessity, be diversified and flexible.

28. The needs of those students for whom secondary education will be terminal constitute a special problem. Within the limits of their individual capacities, such students will, upon completion of the secondary school

¹In addition, however, some local education authorities may wish to experiment with "try-out courses", each of a few weeks' duration, in the optional subjects of the subsequent two years, in order that students through such brief introductory courses may be in a better position to select wisely their optional subjects in the third and fourth years.

stage, have secured a general, well rounded education. Their programme will have included obligatory subjects as well as optional courses designed to reveal special academic and vocational aptitudes and abilities. But something more is needed. This will be provided by allowing such students, in their third and fourth years, to devote to a particular vocational field the total time normally allotted to all optional subjects. The purpose of this is to permit a limited or introductory specialization in such a field. Thus, even though these students lack advanced specialized training, they will be sufficiently prepared to permit entry into one of the positions in industry and commerce that require a relatively short period of specialized training "on-the-job".

29. For those students in this group who are unable to profit from the regular courses because of limited capacity or for other reasons, a further adaptation of the programme in the third and fourth years of secondary school will be necessary. We suggest that a local education authority be permitted to introduce a practical programme of trade training for them, subject to the approval of the Minister. The establishment of such a programme must be feasible, and be justified by the number of students available. The curriculum, as well as the content of the courses, should be adapted for the purpose in accordance with the needs of the students, and most of a student's time should be devoted to practical training in the vocational and allied subjects related to the selected trade. The programme could include, for example, training in skills related to homemaking, and training in trades such as barbering, hairdressing, decorating, furniture repair, tailoring, dressmaking, plastering, and bricklaying. Graduates of such trade courses might, at age 16, enter employment directly upon completion of the secondary school programme, continue their training in a polytechnical institute, or enter apprenticeship. In the latter, we suggest, credit could be given the graduates for completion of the trade courses in secondary schools and polytechnical institutes.

30. The specific aims of the programme of the secondary school will include:

- (1) The acquisition, through the continuation and extension of general education, of knowledge, attitudes, and skills, valuable to all citizens.
- (2) The provision of a well rounded general education, together with limited specialization in a vocational field for those pupils who plan to leave school at age 16.
- (3) The adaptation of the content of obligatory subjects and the introduction of optional exploratory subjects to meet the varying capabilities and needs of pupils, to awaken interests, and to develop latent talent.
- (4) The provision of opportunities for exploration, from which pupils may derive educational and vocational direction.

31. Most noticeable in the literature on optional courses and the adaptation of the content of obligatory and optional subjects, is a lack of under-

standing of the purpose of such measures. To cite but one example, sufficient thought is seldom given to the adaptation of content, although "lip-service" is paid to the need for it. Similarly, although arrangements are nearly always made for optional subjects and courses in programmes prescribed by the central authority, the provision of instruction in these options is, in practice, left to the discretion of the local education authority. Such optional subjects tend to be "optional" only on the part of the board. Admittedly, any departure from a standard and common programme introduces administrative difficulties and problems. Moreover, in schools of very low enrolment it is not economically feasible to provide a wide variety of options. Nevertheless, the validity and applicability of the general principles we have enunciated cannot be questioned. Therefore, in the interests of the students, requisite arrangements for optional subjects and for adaptations of the content of both core and optional subjects must be made to the fullest extent feasible.

32. In making these arrangements, a division of responsibility between the central and local education authorities must be made. Unless a line is clearly drawn and the separate responsibilities are defined, confusion and lack of adequate educational opportunities must inevitably result. The responsibility of the central authority is, in our opinion, to specify the core and optional subjects which must be provided by each local education authority. In addition, the central authority must list other optional subjects which may be offered, subject to approval, by the local education authority. It is necessary, also, for the central authority to specify the maximum and minimum time which may be devoted to each of the optional subjects. Finally, the central authority must, in setting up the courses of study, outline adaptations in the core and optional subjects calculated to meet the needs of pupils of below average, average, and above average ability.

33. Rigid control by the central authority is not contemplated. On the contrary, we propose that, as quickly as is practicable, much of the control over curricula and courses of study be transferred to the local education authorities of the large units of administration which we recommend. However, without a professionally qualified staff no local education authority could competently and efficiently discharge this additional task. Hence, we believe that it is not only desirable but essential that, during the transition period when our general recommendations are being implemented, the central authority should guide, direct, and approve the local adaptations of courses of study. Subject to these safeguards, there should be a gradual transfer of responsibility from the central authority to local education authorities. For the present, and for the immediate future, it will be the responsibility of the local education authority to provide instruction in the prescribed core and optional subjects, including the adaptations thereof. In addition, a local education authority may, subject to the approval of the Minister, provide other optional subjects listed. Likewise, a local education

authority may, subject to the approval of the Minister, introduce still other optional subjects or adapt the content of any optional subject. The purpose of these latter provisions is to permit a local education authority, where circumstances warrant it, to introduce or adapt courses to meet special needs arising from local, economic, and geographical conditions.

34. We suggest that the Minister encourage local initiative in the provision of specific options not generally prescribed and in the adaptation of content to meet local needs. This initiative might well be extended, on an experimental basis and under tentative approval, to include special adaptations of the content of core and optional subjects to meet specific individual differences. While general direction may be given by the Minister, it will be within the classroom that the needs of individual students will actually become known, the appropriate course given, and appropriate methods of instruction employed. The rate and extent of the transfer to local education authorities of control over such *interna* as curricula and courses of study will depend partly on the success of the special adaptations mentioned above.

35. We recommend

that, for the first and second years of the secondary school curriculum,

- (i) *the following subjects be obligatory for all students: English; social studies; general mathematics; general science, including agricultural science; physical and health education; home economics or general shop work; oral French or special courses in French;¹ art; music; religious education or ethics;*
- (ii) *there be no optional subjects.*

36. We recommend

that, for the third year of the secondary school curriculum,

- (i) *the following subjects be obligatory for all students: English; social studies; general mathematics; general science, including agricultural science; physical and health education, including cadet training for boys and its equivalent for girls; occupations; religious education or ethics;*
- (ii) *a student be required to select, in addition, any three, and be permitted to select any four, of the following optional subjects: agriculture; commercial work; home economics or general shop work; art or music, or art and music; French or special courses in French; Latin or German or Spanish or Greek.*

37. We recommend

that, for the fourth year of the secondary school curriculum,

- (i) *the following subjects be obligatory for all students: English; social studies; physical and health education, including cadet training for boys and its equivalent for girls; occupations; religious education or ethics;*

¹See Chapter XVII.

- (ii) *a student be required to select, in addition, any four, and be permitted to select any five, of the following optional subjects: general mathematics; general science or agricultural science; agriculture; commercial work; home economics or general shop work; art or music, or art and music; French or special courses in French;¹ Latin or German or Spanish or Greek.*

38. Our opinion is that normally only three options should be selected in the third year and four in the fourth year. A student who is particularly able, academically or vocationally, should be granted permission by the principal to select an additional option, if it is considered that he can successfully undertake the extra work without prejudice to his achievement in the regular programme. We believe that an exceptionally able student might well be permitted to select a fifth option in the third year, and a sixth in the fourth year, although specific provision for this has not been made in the curriculum. Since such an arrangement will not be general, we propose that the decision be left to the discretion of the local principal and staff.

39. Attention should be drawn to a difficulty which will frequently arise in arranging programmes for individual students in the fourth year. The content of certain subjects is sequential. Thus, in order to undertake certain fourth year options successfully, a student should have taken those options in the third year. But it is inevitable that some will wish to select, in the fourth year, an optional subject not studied in the third year. This may frequently create a problem in view of the encouragement given to exploration in various avenues and fields. Despite the administrative difficulties entailed, a student should be permitted, where it is feasible and the circumstances warrant it, to substitute, for a fourth year optional subject, a third year optional subject not previously taken. Consideration should also be given to the advisability of granting to a fourth year student who selects additional optional subjects permission to choose some of these from third year options; but this is a matter for local decision.

40. A similar variation in the method of selecting optional subjects should be allowed, as we stated earlier, for those students who have decided, before beginning their third year, that they will seek employment upon completion of their secondary school programme. In this connection, attention should be paid to the possibility of introducing what is commonly known as a "school-work" programme, in which a student devotes part of his time to study in school and part to employment in some occupation. Such programmes have some extremely valuable features, but their general history has not been encouraging. Difficulties arise in the administration of them, particularly when it involves co-operation among school authorities, organized labour, and employers. Nevertheless, where local conditions are favourable, much may be gained through the introduction of such programmes. The value is apparent, for example, in the case of students who have shown

¹See Chapter XVII.

little interest, aptitude, or ability, during the first two years of secondary school, in the academic aspects of the school programme.

41. In the third and fourth year curricula, we have listed "occupations" as an obligatory subject. It is not intended, however, that the content should be equal in extent to that of other courses such as English and social studies. Not more than one hour per week should be required for this subject. The aim of the course is to supplement and assist student counselling, to foster an interest in the occupational world, and to provide students with information concerning both educational and employment opportunities, in order that they may be assisted to make wise decisions with respect to further training and the selection of a vocational field. Thus, a student should be advised of the various courses offered in the secondary school and of their relation to further education and possible occupations; and he should be furnished with general information on occupations, particularly with reference to the local situation. The course should include a study of desirable and undesirable personality traits and of the procedure generally followed in applying for positions. To secure integration, the occupations course should be given, if possible, by the person or persons responsible for other aspects of counselling.

42. Our recommendation on the teaching of French in secondary schools means a departure from present practice and requires some explanation. We propose that either oral French or special courses in French be obligatory in the first and second years, and that French or special courses in French be optional in the third and fourth years. It is necessary to distinguish between two courses to be offered in the first and second years: oral French is designed for those students who have not previously studied the language; special courses in French are designed for students who have attended elementary schools in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication with the permission of the Minister of Education,¹ or who have an equivalent knowledge of French gained by some other means.

43. For various reasons, there can be no doubt about the value of studying French. We feel that English-speaking children in this province would benefit from a working knowledge of the French language. Their lives would thereby be enriched culturally and they would gain definite practical advantages. Many positions in the Federal Government Service and in the business world require a knowledge of English and French. But it is for the purpose of furthering understanding between the French-speaking and English-speaking citizens of this province that we have included a compulsory course in oral French in the curriculum of the first and second years of secondary school. We propose not an academic study of French literature, composition, and grammar, but the practice of conversational French. This

¹For our general discussion and recommendations on these schools, see Chapters XVI and XVII.

will correspond to the opportunity which we have later proposed be extended to French-speaking pupils who, in the elementary schools in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication, will learn both English and French.

44. A course which is more advanced than introductory oral French will be required for those students who have studied the language in elementary school. For this reason, we have listed what we have termed special courses in French as an alternative to oral French. Although these special courses will be mainly for pupils who have received their elementary education in schools in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication, they should be available for other pupils who can demonstrate ability to profit from them. In other respects, the general provisions of the curriculum of the new secondary schools will be the same for all children. This is a departure from the present provisions, outlined in Circular 46, 1948,¹ in which a special secondary school curriculum is established for students who have received their elementary education in "schools in which French is a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister". In the present courses, six periods in grade IX and seven in grades X-XII, of a 40-period week, are devoted to English, and an equal amount of time to French. To gain additional time for the study of French a reduction is made in the time allotted to optional subjects of the curriculum. In our opinion, it is neither necessary nor desirable to establish what is, in effect, a special curriculum for French-speaking pupils in the new secondary schools. If their elementary school course is adequate, such students should be able to undertake the regular programme with other students in secondary schools. Special courses in French will also be offered in junior colleges so that a French-speaking student may continue the study of his own language throughout the secondary school and junior college.

45. To a considerable extent, the methods of instruction employed in elementary schools will be used also in the new secondary schools. It is essential that there should not be a complete break, in either method of instruction or programme, as a pupil advances from elementary to secondary school. Since activities and direct experiences should predominate in the junior years of the secondary school, special rooms should be provided for those subjects which lend themselves to this type of treatment, and a group of obligatory subjects should be assigned to a "home-room" teacher. However, the methods of the elementary school cannot be applied without change in the third and fourth years of the new secondary schools. By the end of the fourth year in secondary school, there should be a transition to the teaching methods used in junior college, which depend less on external motivation. There is no need to outline appropriate methods of instruction for the new secondary schools and junior colleges. Within limits, instruc-

¹Circular 46, *Courses of Study and Examinations in Schools Attended by French-Speaking Pupils*, issued by the authority of the Minister of Education, Ontario.

tional procedures will vary according to their purpose, and will change from teacher to teacher.

D. FURTHER EDUCATION

46. Students will normally complete secondary education at approximately age 16, and, providing they can pass the necessary entrance examinations, may continue in one of the courses of the stage of further education. Since most of those who continue will have selected their vocational field, we have planned the programmes of further education on the principle that specialization in a major academic or vocational field is the prime purpose of education at this stage.

47. The lack of such a guiding principle in our present system has, in our opinion, led to confusion, duplication, and some waste of effort. Only a programme of specialized academic, vocational, and technical education will satisfy the varied needs and interests of students during this period. In such a programme there is no conflict between "cultural" and "vocational" education; the two aspects are complementary, not opposed. Each is essential; to ignore either, or to enhance one at the expense of the other, is a serious error.

48. Our discussion of the courses at the stage of further education is divided into three parts:¹

- (1) Junior college courses, academic and vocational
- (2) Provincial technical institute courses
- (3) Part-time day and evening courses

Curricula for the stage of further education must offer a variety of opportunities to prepare for entrance to university or for employment. Consequently, courses of study should be constructed by the central authority, in co-operation with universities, on the one hand, and with local education authorities, business, industry, agriculture, and labour, on the other. The curricula should, in our opinion, be formulated in accordance with the following general patterns.

(1) *Junior College Courses*

49. Junior colleges should provide co-ordinated, yet diversified, programmes of academic and vocational education. Evidence which we have received indicates that the departmentalization of secondary education into academic and vocational education has led to invidious comparisons; in some cases a stigma has been attached to pupils attending particular types of schools. This must be rectified. The existence of a distinct division, even marked in larger centres by separated buildings, has made the transfer of pupils from one course to another difficult if not impossible. Many of the

¹In view of the recommendation that apprenticeship training be arranged in co-operation with the Department of Labour, industry, and organized labour, we have not attempted to outline programmes for this type of education.

present vocational schools, however, through the introduction of the general (matriculation) or academic course, have tended to become multi-lateral schools offering programmes in practically all fields. Similarly, in other secondary schools where all the optional subjects are offered, courses are sufficiently diversified to permit the arrangement of individual programmes varying from the relatively practical to the strictly academic. But there is some evidence of duplication of facilities and confusion of purposes as between academic and vocational schools. The best remedy for this seems to be the establishment of multi-lateral schools offering many programmes in academic and vocational education, so that transfer of students may be readily accomplished. This holds for both rural and urban areas. In very large urban centres, distinct schools offering only a specialized academic or vocational programme may develop; but we do not believe that this is necessary, although we appreciate that the conditions in large centres of population present unique problems for which exceptional provisions may be required. With these possible exceptions, the general needs of academic and vocational education can best be met by the establishment of multi-lateral junior colleges. These will be central schools. In rural areas transportation of pupils will be necessary or possibly the provision of residential facilities or financial aid for students.

50. A core of general education will be continued in all specialized programmes, through the obligatory subjects of English, social studies, and physical and health education, together with cadet training for boys and its equivalent for girls. Although the content of the core subjects may be adapted to meet the needs of special groups, standards of achievement should be maintained. Elective subjects will be selected by a student according to the preparation required for the occupation or the advanced course in education which he expects to enter. A student will be required to select each year three optional subjects in his specialized field. The principal of the school may permit an able student to choose a fourth optional subject. To enrich his programme, such a student should be encouraged to select an optional subject not directly related to those of his specialized group of subjects. He should choose an optional subject with a view to developing a worthy activity for leisure time, a useful personal skill, or an additional field of information. This option might be selected from such subjects as music, art, dramatics, science, shop work, home economics, a language, or one of the commercial subjects.

51. Following admission to junior college, a student will enter upon a programme in one of two main divisions: university-preparatory or vocational. The university-preparatory courses will extend over three years,¹ the final year being the equivalent of the present first year of university work for those who hold the required upper school standing. Thus, a high

¹As explained earlier, where suitable facilities cannot be provided, these will be two-year courses leading to entrance to the first year of university.

level of education will be available locally to young persons capable of profiting from it: the university-preparatory programme of the third year of junior college will actually be two years beyond that of the former middle school, or of junior matriculation. It will also permit students to test further their aptitude and desire for advanced studies before entering a university, thereby serving to eliminate much of the present decrement in university enrolment from year to year—with a consequent saving to the public in the cost of operating these institutions. Provision will be made for specialized academic courses, for example in languages, in science, or in mathematics. Our purpose is to ensure that the graduates of the university-preparatory courses in junior colleges will have a sound general education and adequate specialized preparation in their elected fields.

52. In organizing the university-preparatory programmes of the junior college, attention has been given to the necessity of attaining an equitable distribution of the prescribed work over the three years. That a redistribution of work is necessary is evident from representations made to us to the effect that the work of the present grade XIII course is unduly heavy in comparison with that of the grades immediately preceding. We have also borne in mind that the third year course in junior college will be alternative to a first year honours course in university and should, therefore, approximate it in standards and content. For these reasons, we recommend programmes requiring study of not more than five subjects,¹ upon which candidates for entrance to university will be examined after completing a three-year programme.

53. Other programmes, including industrial and technical, commercial, agricultural, and home economics, will permit specialization in the major vocational fields. The vocational courses will extend over two years, and the aim will be to develop advanced technological skills leading to employment on the semi-professional level. They will not be purely technical and will not give complete training in a skilled trade; in all cases, however, the essentials of a general education will be included. Junior colleges will not be associated with a particular industry but will meet the general need for vocational education. They will not duplicate the work of the technical institutes which, as will be made evident later, will provide specialized training in a particular industry or industrial field for graduates of the junior colleges and others who have had equivalent training.

54. In the section on the secondary school, we discussed in some detail the provision of optional courses and whether or not a local education authority should be required to provide all those which were listed. The considerations discussed there apply with equal force to the junior college programme. Specialization in any one of many fields, which is the major aim of this programme, cannot be attained unless at least a majority of the

¹Students will not be required to write an external school examination on physical and health education.

courses are provided by the local education authority. As our recommendations in regard to junior colleges require the provision of a new type of educational institution in this province, it seems obvious that, at least for the transitional period, the central authority must exercise fairly close control over the programmes. However, when experience has been gained and a tradition established, the control should be left almost entirely to the local education authority. In the meantime, the central authority must specify the obligatory subjects as well as the minimum number of optional subjects to be provided by each local education authority. Provision of additional optional subjects may be left to the discretion of the local education authority, subject to the approval of the Minister of Education. We are aware that a local education authority may wish to provide options directed toward a local industry or industries. This development should be encouraged, on condition that the local education authority makes provision for other optional subjects so as to enable students to enter occupations not available locally.

55. We recommend¹

that, for the curricula in junior colleges,

- (i) *the following subjects be obligatory in each of the three years: English; social studies; physical and health education, including cadet training for boys and its equivalent for girls; religious education or ethics (for the first two years only);*
- (ii) *for the first and second year, the required three optional subjects be selected from the following: mathematics (one or two); science (one or two); French or special courses in French; Latin; German; Spanish; Greek; Italian; shop work; typewriting and office practice; bookkeeping; shorthand; accountancy; agriculture; nutrition and cookery; textile arts; homemaking; music; art; dramatics;*
- (iii) *for the third year of the university-preparatory programme, the required three optional subjects be selected from the following: mathematics (one or two); science (one or two); French or special courses in French; Latin; German; Spanish; Greek; Italian; music or art.*

56. The following sample programmes illustrate how, in addition to the obligatory subjects, a student may select courses leading to specialization in the options indicated:

University-preparatory Programmes (Optional Subjects)

- (a) Mathematics Option—two mathematics, one science or one language
- (b) Science Option—two sciences, one mathematics or one language
- (c) Language Option—Latin, two other languages
- (d) General Option—any three optional subjects

¹With reference to subjects chosen in the third year where required for university entrance purposes, we propose that candidates be required to write two papers in English, not more than two papers in mathematics where this subject is chosen, and one paper only in the case of each of the other subjects selected.

Vocational Programmes (Optional Subjects)

- (a) Industrial and Technical Option—specialized and related shop work, mathematics, science
- (b) Commercial Option—typewriting and office practice, bookkeeping, shorthand or accountancy
- (c) Agricultural Option—agriculture and related shop work, mathematics, science
- (d) Home Economics Option—textile arts or nutrition and cookery, homemaking, science or art

(2) Provincial Technical Institute Courses

57. The courses in technical institutes will be of two main types. The first may be classified under the general heading “Trade Courses”. These should be designed to provide students from the apprenticeship level of employment and above with training in skills related to a specific occupation, such as bricklaying, plumbing, or barbering. Classes should be conducted in specially equipped schools, preferably in polytechnical institutes, in order to ensure economy in accommodation and equipment. The programme of training for the skilled trades will be limited in content, the aim being intensive preparation to assure immediate competency in a specific occupation. The students will enter the institute directly from a trade, from secondary school, or from junior college. Some will attend night school only, while others will enrol in full-time classes for a period of weeks or months. Some training will be co-ordinated with the apprenticeship system; in this event, students should be granted credit for their work in the institute toward their period of apprenticeship training. For some trades, training in the technical or polytechnical institute will suffice, without further experience through apprenticeship.

58. The other type of course may be classified as the “Industrial Course”. Technical institutes, similar to the mining, textile, and forestry institutes now operating, should be established for a number of industries. Through industrial courses, students will be prepared for technical and administrative posts auxiliary to professional engineering. They will be admitted following successful completion of two years at a junior college or, where they have equivalent academic and vocational qualifications, from employment in industry. Industrial courses should include: (1) day courses, two or three years in length, leading to a diploma; (2) part-time day or evening courses for which partial credit might be given on the diploma course; and (3) advanced courses or short special courses, day or evening, for workers from industry. Since the curriculum provided for each institute will be highly specialized to meet the needs of a related industry, it is impossible to state any general governing principle other than that general education should be combined with specialized technical training through the inclusion in each curriculum of: (1) technical subjects; (2) related mathematics

and science; (3) English; and (4) social studies, or economics, or history and geography.

(3) *Part-time Day and Evening Courses*

59. In our discussion of part-time education,¹ we indicated the types of courses which we believe should be offered for part-time students. In most cases, these courses will be given in secondary schools and junior colleges under the jurisdiction of a local education authority. But some will be provided in provincial technical institutes.

60. In the part-time day and evening classes, the regular courses of secondary schools and junior colleges should be offered. In addition, courses should be provided which are directly related to an avocation. Thus, they will vary from purely academic and cultural to vocational, and will include mathematics, history, science, languages, and practical courses such as home economics, shop work, sewing, woodworking, typing, business machine operation, and bookkeeping.

CONSTRUCTING CURRICULA AND COURSES OF STUDY

61. It will be evident that our recommendations and suggestions will necessitate a comprehensive revision of the present curricula and courses of study. It is imperative, for example, that the length of time required to complete the equivalent of the present programme of elementary and secondary education be reduced from 13 to 12 years. The revision will require not only a reduction in content through elimination of duplications and obsolete material, together with a redistribution of content, but also the drafting of new courses for the third year of junior college. In the general revision it will not suffice to prepare curricula and courses for isolated units or stages; in order to secure a unified and coherent programme it will be essential, in view of the scope of the proposed revision and reorganization, to consider the educational system as a whole. So great and so important is the task, that it can be successfully discharged only through a whole-hearted co-operative effort by the representatives of all the groups who are actively and directly concerned with the formal education of our youth.

62. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that an ad hoc committee be appointed by the Minister of Education to prepare, in co-operation with local curriculum committees, curricula for the proposed three stages of the educational system;*
- (b) *that, later, ad hoc committees be appointed by the Minister of Education to draft new courses of study to implement any report of the said committee on curricula;*
- (c) *that the new programmes be introduced, if necessary on a tentative and experimental basis, as expeditiously as possible.*

¹See Chapter III.

CHAPTER VI

SOCIAL, SPIRITUAL, AND OTHER ASPECTS OF EDUCATION

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

*Public Elementary Schools*¹

1. Since the inception of a public system of education in Upper Canada, it has been an accepted principle that "religion and morality, though not sectarianism, must have a central place in any system of education."² This principle was embodied in the general regulations based on the *Consolidated Common School Act for Upper Canada*, 1859. Its observance was made effective by the issue, in 1861, of a school manual which gave comprehensive instructions for the conduct of schools.

2. During the past century relatively little change has taken place in this province in the statutes or regulations relating to religious instruction in schools. The Act still provides that "Subject to the regulations, pupils shall be allowed to receive such religious instruction as their parents or guardians desire."³ Religious freedom of the individual is ensured by the provision that "No pupil in a public school shall be required to read or study in or from any religious book, or to join in any exercise of devotion or religion, objected to by his parent or guardian."⁴ The present Public Schools Act also states in Section 8 that "every clergyman shall be a school visitor in the municipality where he has pastoral charge . . . may attend any school exercises, and at the time of any visit may examine the progress of the pupils and the state and management of the schools, and give such advice to the teachers and pupils, and any others present as . . . [he] may deem expedient." Under "Duties of Teachers" in Section 103(a) of the same Act, it is provided that teachers "inculcate by precept and example respect for religion and the principles of Christian morality and the highest regard for truth, justice, loyalty, love of country, humanity, benevo-

¹For a discussion of religious education in Roman Catholic separate schools, see Chapter XIX.

²C. B. Sissons, *Egerton Ryerson, His Life and Letters*, Vol. II, Toronto: Clarke, Irwin, 1947, p. 95.

³*The Public Schools Act*, Sec. 7 (2).

⁴*Ibid.*, Sec. 7 (1).

lence, sobriety, industry, frugality, purity, temperance and all other virtues." And candidates for admission to normal school continue to be required to submit a certificate of good moral character.

3. In the *Programme of Studies for Grades I to VI of the Public and Separate Schools*, 1941, occur the statements: "The schools of Ontario exist for the purpose of preparing children to live in a democratic society which bases its way of life upon the Christian ideal," and "The school must seek to lead the child to choose and accept as his own those ideals of conduct and endeavour which a Christian and democratic society approves." Similarly, the *Programme of Studies for Grades VII and VIII of the Public and Separate Schools*, 1942, contains the view that the social purposes of the school "imply the existence of standards of behaviour, generally agreed upon and accepted by all, to which the conduct of the individual may be referred. Such standards do in fact exist; and, in our society, they derive from the ethics of the Christian religion and the principles of democratic living."

4. It is evident that the spirit of the original statutes still pervades the Acts and regulations regarding religious instruction in our schools. In September, 1944, revised regulations¹ made provision for religious education as a subject of instruction in public elementary schools, and the following excerpts from these indicate the policy of the Department of Education. They ensure:

- (1) That the programme of studies in religious education for public elementary schools will be non-sectarian and undenominational:

Instruction in Religious Education shall be given by the teacher in accordance with the course of study authorized for that purpose by the Department, and issues of a controversial or sectarian nature shall be avoided.

- (2) That religious freedom of the individual will be guaranteed:

No pupil shall be required to take part in any religious exercises or be subject to any instruction in Religious Education to which objection is raised by his parent or guardian.

A teacher claiming exemption from the teaching of Religious Education as prescribed by the regulations, shall notify the Board to that effect in writing; and it shall then be the duty of the Board to make such other provision as may be necessary to implement the regulation with respect to the teaching of the subject.

The Minister may grant to a Board exemption from the teaching of Religious Education in any classroom or school provided the Board shall request in writing such exemption and shall submit reasons therefor.

5. The considerations behind the decision of 1944 to include religious education as a subject of instruction in public elementary schools appear to have been as follows:

- (1) Many children were receiving no religious instruction in Sunday School and probably none in their homes.² In the brief (64) sub-

¹O. Reg. 30/44.

²Brief 44, *Teaching of Religious Education in the Public Schools of Ontario*, submitted by the Department of Education.

mitted by the Board of Christian Education, United Church of Canada, the number was estimated at "50% of our children and youth. . .".

- (2) After the outbreak of war in 1939, there was a rapid increase in the number of clergymen who availed themselves of the opportunity to give religious instruction in school before and after school hours. Nevertheless, the Ontario Educational Association and other interested groups urged that more adequate provision for religious instruction be made. It was impossible, it was claimed, for clergymen to meet all the school needs under the existing regulations.
- (3) The conviction that education can never be complete without religion was expressed in briefs submitted by the following: the Board of Christian Education (Brief 64); the Inter-Church Committee on Religious Education (Brief 28); The Church of England (Brief 77); Judge G. W. Morley (Briefs 104 and 118); the Catholic Bishops of Ontario (Brief 196); and the Canadian Jewish Congress (Brief 46). In the last-named brief, the importance of religious education was emphasized, although the policy of the Department of Education with regard to it was opposed.

6. For the purpose of assisting teachers, a series of guide books, successfully used in England, and known as the Surrey Guides, was revised for use in Ontario in grades I to VI. The series was recommended to the Department by The Inter-Church Committee on Weekday Religious Education and, before publication, the revised guides were submitted to this committee and to representatives of other religious bodies.

7. The regulations of 1944 respecting religious education provided fewer departures from established practice than is commonly supposed. The major changes were brought about by the provisions for specific instruction in religious education during school hours and for affording the clergy an opportunity to give instruction in religious education at such time. The relevant clauses of the regulations are as follows:

2. (a) Subject to the regulations, two periods per week of one-half hour each, in addition to the time assigned to religious exercises at the opening of school, shall be devoted to Religious Education.
- (b) Religious Education shall be given immediately after the opening of school or immediately before the closing of school in either the morning or the afternoon session.
-
- (d) By resolution of the School Board, a clergyman or clergymen of any denomination, or a lay person or lay persons selected by the clergyman or clergymen, shall have the right, subject to the regulations, to give Religious Instruction, in lieu of a teacher or teachers.¹

8. The prescribed course of study for religious education has met with general acceptance, although strong objections were raised by certain

¹O. Reg. 30/44.

Presbyterian ministers,¹ certain Baptist ministers,² and some members of the Jewish faith.³ The objections, in the main, centred around the possibility of interference by the state in matters of conscience.

9. The Bible is the only textbook for the subject of religious education. There are strong reasons for valuing the authorized version, based on tradition and literary appreciation, but it is written in sixteenth-century English and the language is a serious obstacle to understanding on the part of pupils in the elementary school.⁴

10. The course in religious education is designed to ensure that all children will have an opportunity to receive religious instruction and become more familiar with the Scriptures. But pupils may be exempted from such instruction if objections are raised by a parent or guardian, or by the board of trustees as representatives of the community. Relatively few boards of trustees have applied for exemption. In the school year 1944-45, with 5,405 public school boards of trustees operating in the province, only 63 requested exemption from the teaching of religious education in classes or schools under their jurisdiction. The figures for the three following years were as follows: 1945-46, 37; 1946-47, 35; 1947-48, 46. Of the 46 boards of trustees which asked for exemption in 1947-48, 7 were urban with jurisdiction over 143 classes and 4,094 pupils, and 39 were rural with jurisdiction over 199 public school classes and 5,273 pupils.⁵ The schools concerned were widely distributed over the province. In 40 of the 46 cases the request originated in centres having several religious denominations, including Roman Catholic. In one case, reference was made to a "large number of Jewish children". In 21 of the 46 cases exemption had been claimed in the preceding school year.

11. Evidence submitted to us has demonstrated that, if our aims in education are to be achieved, religious education should be included as a subject of study in the curriculum of the proposed public elementary schools. The present regulations relating to religious education in public schools seem to be eminently satisfactory. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that religious exercises continue to be conducted and religious education continue to be a subject of instruction in public elementary schools;*
- (b) *that the present regulations relating to religious exercises and religious education in public schools be continued;*

¹*The Christian Faith and Religion in Ontario Schools*, a pamphlet, by seven clergymen, six Presbyterian and one United Church, presented to the Royal Commission on Education with Brief 45.

²*The Gospel Witness*, March, 1945.

³Brief 46, *Religious Education in Public Schools*, submitted by the Canadian Jewish Congress.

⁴Cf. Scottish Education Department, *Secondary Education*, A Report of the Advisory Council on Education in Scotland, Edinburgh: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1947, pp. 101-103.

⁵Letter from the Deputy Minister of Education, dated January 13, 1949.

- (c) *that in any revision of the guide books in religious education careful consideration be given to specific items raised by the Canadian Jewish Congress in Brief 46, Appendix I;*
- (d) *that consideration be given to the advisability of granting approval for the use of children's Bible stories containing such parts of the Scriptures as may be especially suitable for elementary school pupils;*
- (e) *that the Department of Education seek the co-operation of The Inter-Church Committee on Weekday Religious Education in the preparation of a list of daily Scripture readings, based directly on the course of study for religious education, for use in the senior division of the elementary school;*
- (f) *that provision be made in the programmes of junior colleges of education and in the elementary school option of the Ontario College of Education for instruction in methods of conducting religious exercises and of teaching religious education in public elementary schools.*

Secondary Schools and Junior Colleges

12. No provision is made in the present regulations for religious education in secondary schools as a subject of study within school hours. By resolution of a board of trustees, clergymen or their representatives may give religious instruction to pupils of their own denomination at least once a week after school hours. Such instruction must be given in the school, and no religious emblem of a denominational nature may be exhibited in the school during school hours. Religious exercises, however, subject to the usual exemptions, form a part of the regular programme.

13. In our opinion, it is necessary to make more adequate provisions for the teaching of religious education in the proposed secondary schools and junior colleges. The inclusion of instruction in religious education in the present secondary school curriculum was advocated in several briefs submitted to us, notably in that of The Inter-Church Committee on Weekday Religious Education (Brief 28), and in that of the Rev. Howard G. Salton (Brief 159). In our opinion, it is essential that students in the new secondary schools and in the first two years of junior college receive either instruction in religious education given by clergymen or instruction in ethics from members of the regular staff of the school.

14. We therefore recommend

- (a) *that religious exercises be conducted in the new secondary schools and junior colleges;*
- (b) *that religious education and ethics be subjects of study in each year of the secondary school programme and in each of the first two years of the junior college programme;*
- (c) *that, with reference to the subjects of religious education and ethics,*

- (i) *each student be required to enrol each year in one of these two subjects;*
- (ii) *instruction be given within school hours;*
- (iii) *that the wishes of the parents, if expressed, be observed in determining in which of these two subjects his child is to be enrolled;*
- (d) (i) *that instruction in religious education be given by a clergyman to pupils of his own denomination; or, alternatively, that clergymen of a number of denominations select a clergyman to give instruction in religious education to the pupils of those denominations;*
- (ii) *that a clergyman be authorized to designate a person, other than a teacher in a publicly supported school, to conduct his course or courses in religious education;*
- (e) *that the courses in ethics be taught by members of the teaching staff of the school;*
- (f) *that the time to be devoted to instruction in each of religious education and ethics be two half-hour periods a week;*
- (g) *that instruction in religious education be given in designated rooms in the school or elsewhere and at such times within school hours as may be determined by the principal and approved by the local education authority;*
- (h) *that regulations be drafted permitting clergymen, or persons designated by them, to enter a school and give instruction in the subject of religious education in the rooms and at the times specified, or to receive charge of students and give such instruction elsewhere at the time specified;*
- (i) *that the clergyman be responsible for the content and organization of the course in religious education given by him or his representative;*
- (j) *that the Department of Education prepare suitable courses of study in ethics, approve textbooks, and prepare regulations relating to instruction in such courses;*
- (k) *that provision be made in the programme of the Ontario College of Education for instruction in methods of conducting religious exercises and of teaching ethics in secondary schools and junior colleges.*

RELIGIOUS EMBLEMS

15. Section 24 of the *Regulations for High Schools and Collegiate Institutes* reads as follows: "No religious emblem of a denominational nature shall be exhibited in a high school during school hours."¹ Similar regulations are in effect for other secondary schools, and, up to 1944, were

¹O. Reg. 252/48.

effective for public schools. In our opinion, some regulation of this kind is essential in all publicly supported schools. We therefore recommend

that regulations be drafted to ensure

- (i) *that religious emblems of a denominational nature be not exhibited in any public elementary school, secondary school, junior college, or provincial educational institution during school hours, except in a room used for religious instruction by a clergyman, or a representative designated by him, to adherents of his own denomination, and then only during the periods allotted to such instructions;*
- (ii) *that a religious habit be not permitted to be worn by a teacher employed in any public elementary school, secondary school, junior college, or provincial educational institution while discharging his official duties, except by a teacher in training while engaged in his programme of training.*

HEALTH EDUCATION AND SERVICES

16. For countless generations *mens sana in corpore sano* has been an aim of education. In ancient Greece training in physical exercises occupied an important place in the all-round development of the citizen. The purpose was not to produce the professional athlete, but to develop rhythm and ensure moderation in all things and, at the same time, to overcome incipient indecision and weakness of character. With the triumph of the ascetic outlook in the Middle Ages, this aim of education was overshadowed, but it triumphed again with the rise of nationalism and humanism at the beginning of the Modern Age. Still later, the purpose of education came to be regarded as the complete development of the individual, and health and physical education came to occupy an important place in the school programme.

17. The provision of conditions conducive to healthful school living, a part of the larger problem of public health and in itself a complex problem, cannot be achieved by any single design or measure. As a minimum, the total school environment should contribute to natural, happy, and healthful living; an adequate programme of health and physical education should be followed; and there should be co-operation between provincial and local school and health authorities in the provision of an adequate programme of health services. In modern schools, emphasis is placed on the practical application of knowledge in the development of proper health habits, behaviour routines, and desirable attitudes toward personal and public health. In a real sense, health is now part of the entire curriculum of the school.

18. We recommend

that in all publicly supported schools instruction in health be correlated with health services.

19. It is generally accepted that school health services should make provision for the following: complete physical examination of each individual at stated intervals; special physical examinations to meet specific needs; routine examinations at frequent intervals; dental inspection and treatment; tests for tuberculosis; first-aid treatment; supervision of special health provisions for atypical children; the keeping of individual health records; and the inculcation of proper mental attitudes toward matters pertaining to public and personal health.

20. We recommend

- (a) *that, failing the production of a certificate of good health from a qualified physician, physical examinations of children in schools under the jurisdiction of the Department of Education be conducted, subject to the consent of the parents, by the public health authority, as follows:*
 - (i) *physical examinations of all children at the following stages: (1) pre-school or upon entrance to elementary schools; (2) the final year of elementary school; (3) the final year of secondary school;*
 - (ii) *special examinations of children, upon request of the health staff;*
- (b) *that the physical examinations specified under (a) (i) include tests for tuberculosis;*
- (c) *that participation by a student in strenuous competitive sports in any school year be permitted only after submission of a written statement from a physician that his physical condition is satisfactory;*
- (d) *that dental inspection be provided annually;*
- (e) *that the parent or guardian be immediately advised of the findings of any physical examination or dental inspection;*
- (f) *that medical or dental treatment, where provided, be undertaken only with the prior written consent of the parent or guardian;*
- (g) *that routine examinations of all children—with reference to specific factors such as height, weight, vision (both near and far), hearing, etc.—be undertaken annually by the nurse assigned to the school;*
- (h) *that continuous health records be maintained on a confidential basis.*

21. A mental hygiene programme in education, as described by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene (Canada),¹ is directed toward the solution of three problems:

- (1) The provision of an adequate program in schools which will ensure the development of positive mental health for all boys and girls.
- (2) The provision of a preventive program in schools which will head off mental ill-health in the form of mental disorders, delinquency, family difficulties, behaviour problems, unhappiness and general maladjustments.
- (3) The provision of an adequate remedial program for the rehabilitation of the maladjusted, the delinquent and the behaviour problem.

¹Brief 24, *Mental Hygiene*.

By 1948 six mental health clinics had been established by the Mental Hygiene Branch of the Ontario Department of Health. Any person may receive assistance from a clinic,¹ and it has been reported to us that approximately 50 per cent of the persons receiving assistance are children. In one of the centres a School Guidance Clinic is conducted each week during the school year. In 1947 "The group classified as being of school age, (6-13 years) contributed 27.0 per cent of the total cases."² During the same period, 26.2 per cent of all cases were referred to the clinics by the Children's Aid Society, 4.9 per cent by the School Medical Services, and 4.2 per cent by educational agencies.³

22. In April, 1948, a research project was instituted by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene (Canada) in collaboration with the University of Toronto and the Board of Education, Forest Hill Village. In this project, not only was a mental health clinic established at the school, but courses in "human relations" were taught at stated grade levels (in 1948-49, in grades VI, IX, and XI). Those who are conducting the project anticipate that both members of staff of these schools and parents will gain a greater appreciation of the mental health problems of children and adolescents, that a number of persons will be trained for mental health work in schools, and that benefit will accrue to pupils generally as well as to those who receive special treatment.

23. In September, 1948, a school guidance clinic was established by the Toronto Board of Education in co-operation with the Toronto Board of Health. Children may be referred to the clinic by teachers, attendance officers, visiting attendance teachers, and others, through the school principal and a central co-ordinating officer; and the psychiatrist, psychologist, and others assess the problem and determine remedial measures. Treatment is confined to educational and social therapy.

24. We recommend

that local education authorities be encouraged to co-operate with local boards of health in matters relating to the mental health of school children and, where necessary, to secure assistance from the mental health clinics of the Ontario Department of Health.

25. Adequate nutrition is essential to the development and well-being of the individual. At the beginning of the century, malnutrition was thought to result from a deficiency of food, and was generally understood to be an indication of poverty or lack of proper care in the home. It is now known that malnutrition is caused as frequently by improper diet as by insufficient food, and that it can, and does, occur in children in wealthy homes. Since the vast majority of children attend publicly supported schools, it is some-

¹See "Part 9, Mental Health Clinics", *The Mental Hospitals Act*, Sections 93-102.

²"Mental Health Clinics" in the *80th Annual Report of Mental Hospitals Division*, Department of Health, Ontario, 1948, p. 113.

³*Ibid.*, Table 2, p. 115.

times contended that schools should provide nutritious meals for pupils. A two-year experiment was conducted in Toronto by the Red Cross Society to determine the effect of the provision of a nutritious noon-day meal on the health and school achievement of pupils. The findings, announced in 1950, were inconclusive, indicating that the beneficial results generally expected had not been realized.

26. In many schools in Ontario today, milk is regularly supplied to pupils. The practice of providing a hot dish to supplement pupils' lunches is increasing, particularly in rural elementary schools. In some cases a complete lunch is prepared in the school. In most large secondary schools conditions of attendance are such that a cafeteria or similar service must be supplied. Under the present regulations of the Department of Education, however, there is no statutory provision for a school board to provide free milk or meals for pupils.

27. Without attempting to minimize the complexity of the problem, it is apparent to us that the nutrition of the school child has two major aspects: the actual provision of meals or other supplementary feeding in schools; and an increased study and understanding of the importance of proper diet. It is our opinion that the school is directly concerned with the second aspect; but with regard to the first, in view of the cost and the inconclusive nature of the evidence as to the effect on either health or school achievement, we feel that education authorities should not be charged with responsibility for the provision of meals or for the supplementary feeding of pupils. Where the need for such is evidenced, responsibility should be assumed by welfare, health, or other agencies.

28. We recommend

- (a) *that in our schools greater emphasis be placed on the study of nutrition;*
- (b) *that expenditures by local education authorities for expendable supplies for meals or supplementary feeding in schools be not recognized as part of approved cost of operating for legislative grant purposes;*
- (c) *that, where it is necessary for lunches to be eaten in school, school authorities provide adequate accommodation, facilities, and supervision;*
- (d) *that any provisions made by a local education authority for meals or supplementary feeding be, wherever feasible, under the direct supervision of a qualified nutritionist.*

TEMPERANCE EDUCATION

29. In accordance with our general philosophy of education, we hold that indulgence to excess is not consistent with the character of the wise man. Thus, the development of temperance in living becomes a major aim

of education. Man's greater control over nature has increased the dangers of intemperance. When increased control over natural forces is not matched by a corresponding self-control on the part of the individual, it becomes dangerous. Growth in man's power over the physical world puts an ever increasing responsibility on education to prepare man to control the forces which science and mass production have placed in his hands. In imparting skills and knowledge, modern schools are at their best; but in matters respecting the application and use of such skills and knowledge, they are much less successful. It is here that education finds its greatest challenge.

30. Self-control requires knowledge, proper attitudes, and practice. Knowledge is necessary because, in order to exercise self-control, intelligent decisions must be made, based upon information as to alternatives and possible outcomes. Self-control requires proper attitudes toward justice, fair play, and respect for the rights of others. Knowledge, unless guided by socially desirable attitudes, may result in behaviour that is selfish and socially destructive. In our opinion, temperate living is a cumulative product of the entire school programme. It cannot be achieved solely through classroom instruction in a subject labelled "Temperance Education".

31. An aspect of the general problem of education for temperate living to which much attention has been directed relates to the use of alcohol and tobacco. As part of his general education a student should be prepared to make adequate decisions on matters such as this. The relevant facts should be taught in the same manner as any others. If the method followed in teaching the effects of alcohol and tobacco differs from that used in teaching other subject matter, only confusion and vitiation of the instruction can result. Specific instruction on such topics can be most naturally and effectively included in the courses in social studies, science, and health and physical education, as is done at present in elementary and secondary schools. We support the continuance of this instruction and suggest that in the reorganized educational system it be given in the third and fourth years of the secondary school programme. The established facts regarding the effects of alcohol and tobacco upon human health and behaviour should be presented; unscientific and sensational statements should be avoided, since over-emphasis will tend to defeat the purpose of the instruction.

32. We recommend

- (a) *that temperance in living be an aim permeating the school programme at all stages of the educational system;*
- (b) *that in the third and fourth years of the new secondary schools specific instruction on the effects of the use of alcohol and tobacco be given;*
- (c) *that information on the effects of alcohol and tobacco be presented objectively and in keeping with the latest available scientific findings.*

SEX EDUCATION

33. The need for providing sex education in our schools was stated in many briefs submitted to us. Recommendations on the subject were made, for example, in Brief 32 on *Rural Education*, presented by the Federated Women's Institutes of Ontario; in Brief 170, on *Physical and Health Education*, presented by the Men's Physical Education Section of the Ontario Educational Association; in Brief 193, on *A Course on Marriage and Family Life to be Incorporated in the Secondary Schools of the Province of Ontario*, submitted by the Council for Social Service of the Diocese of Toronto, Church of England in Canada; and in Memorandum 27, on *Sex Education in the Schools*, submitted by the Health League of Canada. There is a lack of agreement in these briefs and in other literature on the subject as to the extent to which sex education should be given. For example, some propose a definite and comprehensive course on family life and human relations; others propose instruction on sex education as only part of courses, such as science and biology, in the existing curriculum, and suggest special lectures on sex hygiene and venereal diseases only.

34. Similarly, there is apparently little agreement as to who is to be charged with responsibility for instruction in sex education. Some would assign the responsibility to the church; some to parents; some to the school. Others would assign it jointly to the church, the home, and the school. Those who maintain that instruction in sex education should be given in school suggest that instructors include the teacher, the minister, the doctor, the psychologist, and the family counsellor. There is a further lack of agreement as to the stage or stages of the educational system in which instruction should be given.

35. In our opinion, the school cannot be asked to accept full responsibility for sex education. Its task must be to supplement the efforts of home and church, particularly through the teaching of physiology and through the development of wholesome attitudes and ideals. Sex education has two aspects: enlightenment and knowledge; and the development of the appropriate social attitudes and ideals of human relationships and family life. To achieve the first object, the school can provide facts and information; the second can be pursued as an integral part of the general social and spiritual development of the child.

36. Sex education should be organized to meet the needs of pupils in each of three stages of their development. The first occurs before the attainment of puberty, when questions will be asked arising from the natural curiosity of children and their desire to learn. In the normal course of events these questions will be answered by the parents. Where they arise in school, however, they should be answered by the teacher as fully and naturally as possible or, where it is deemed advisable, should be referred to the parents. For the most part, during this stage there will be need in school for incidental instruction only.

37. The majority of pupils will attain puberty sometime during their first three years in secondary school. Sex instruction for such pupils should be of two types: instruction in the physiology of the human body; and individual counsel. The former should be included as part of the courses in science and health; the latter will generally be given by parents but, where necessary, should be given by the health counsellor to individual pupils where the consent of the parents has been obtained. Parents would be greatly assisted in instructing their children in this subject if parent education, perhaps through home and school associations, included specific guidance for imparting information on sex education.

38. During the third and fourth years of secondary school there should be continuing and increasing emphasis upon the development of wholesome attitudes and ideals in relation to family life. This development may be promoted through the study of many subjects, particularly social studies, physical and health education, religious education, and ethics. It is a part of the social, moral, and spiritual growth of the child.

39. If children do not receive proper sex education in home or school, they will almost inevitably learn about sex in undesirable ways and gain a partial and dangerous kind of knowledge. Accordingly, although we are not prepared to offer detailed recommendations concerning the content of a course of study, we do suggest that instruction in sex be given in the new secondary schools. A study of the physiological facts of sex and the inculcation of related spiritual and moral values should develop in youth a wholesome understanding of, and a proper perspective regarding, the place of sex in the life of the individual. We believe that such instruction is necessary to assist the individual both to become well adjusted and to understand and appreciate the moral and spiritual concepts which underlie our society and the conventions which they sustain.

EDUCATION FOR HOMEMAKING

40. Education for homemaking and family living has long been included in the curricula of our schools. In the official programme for public schools issued in 1871, for example, "Needlework" and "Domestic Economy" were listed as courses for girls, the latter "in place of Euclid". Home economics was first introduced in the elementary school programme; not until the beginning of the present century did it become a subject of study in a few high schools. Its inclusion in the secondary school programme evoked some criticism, as indicated in Brief 60, submitted by Miss Anne W. Cameron, Inspector of Home Economics, Department of Education of Ontario:

The elevation of this generally regarded elementary subject to the secondary level was criticized by those interested in secondary school pupils, because the techniques of acquiring cooking and sewing skills were not esteemed sufficiently intellectual for a high school subject. Science helped in answering both criticisms. In the courses of study the scientific aspect of homemaking was emphasized in the selection of content. The methods of science were adopted in teaching methods by

the stressing of theory, the carrying out of experiments and the provision of laboratory lay-outs patterned after science laboratories.

41. That the purpose of the courses in home economics has broadened over the years is evident from the following statement of the significance of education in this subject today:

Cooking and sewing are terms commonly conceived as Home Economics activities in the classroom by those unfamiliar with the modern programme. Home Economics is interested in the preparation of food and the construction of clothing; but the problems of home economics, as they concern the individual, have much broader implications. Home Economics grew out of an interest in family life and this interest has controlled its development at every stage. Feeding a family satisfactorily demands a wide learning; meals must be planned, food purchased, prepared, served and stored. The wise planning of meals involves a knowledge of nutrition, food purchasing, markets, price variations, economies in buying, grades of goods, distribution, storage, etc. The problems of the selection, purchase and care of clothing, and the problems of housing, caring for children, protecting health, caring for the sick, using family resources and developing and maintaining wholesome human relationships, can be as broad as the teacher in her interpretation of the curriculum is able to see them.¹

42. Courses in home economics are included in the present programmes of study for grades VII and VIII of the elementary school and in the first four years of secondary school but, owing to administrative and financial difficulties, they are available to only a small proportion of the children of the province. The subject is listed as an option and provision for it is, therefore, at the discretion of the local board of trustees. In secondary schools the tendency is to offer it only in grades IX and X. Only in the larger urban centres are there adequate facilities in either elementary or secondary schools to present the courses satisfactorily.

43. The vast majority of girls will make homemaking a career, although they may for a limited period engage in some other occupation. Although boys should also receive a practical training in many of the homemaking skills, as far as this can be arranged, and must achieve an adequate understanding and appreciation of the problems of home life and family relationships, it is pertinent to note that the future welfare of the home and family will depend in large measure on the training received by girls in the home and in the school.

44. We are here primarily concerned with the needs of those girls who will end their formal education upon completion of the secondary school programme or during the junior college stage. It is particularly important that members of this group should receive practical training in the science and art of homemaking and family life before they leave school.

45. Under the proposed reorganization of the educational system, courses in home economics, including homemaking, will be given in secondary schools and junior colleges. Such courses in secondary schools will require

¹Brief 60, *Home Economics Education*, submitted by Miss Anne W. Cameron.

a complete transformation of the present programme into a four-year unit offered in all schools. In the first two years of the secondary school, courses in home economics will be compulsory, and, in the third and fourth years, optional. In junior colleges, home economics will also be provided as an optional course. Thus, there will be opportunities for both practical instruction and specialized training in home economics, in conformity with the general purpose of junior college education.

46. We wish to emphasize the need for, and importance of, practical courses in homemaking, particularly in secondary schools. At present there is a definite tendency to make courses in home economics too scientific and academic; the result is a failure to deal with the problems that a young wife and mother will meet in her everyday life in the home. We support a return to instruction in practical and everyday problems and to adequate practice in the common and useful skills in an environment approximating that of the average home.

47. Courses of a similar but more advanced nature will be offered, as one of the two-year vocational options, in junior colleges. While the training will still be practical, an increasing emphasis should be placed on the scientific aspects of the programme.

48. Specialized training in certain branches of home economics will be offered in polytechnical institutes. This, however, should be supplemented by part-time courses in day and night classes. Of particular importance will be the opportunity to provide part-time courses in homemaking during winter months at agricultural institutes.

49. We recommend

- (a) *that courses in home economics be organized into two units:*
 - (i) *a four-year unit for the new secondary schools;*
 - (ii) *a two-year unit for the vocational option in the new junior colleges;*
- (b) *that local education authorities be required to provide courses in home economics in secondary schools and junior colleges;*
- (c) *that part-time courses in homemaking be provided*
 - (i) *by local education authorities in secondary schools and junior colleges;*
 - (ii) *in provincial technical and polytechnical institutes.*

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

50. The growing complexity of agricultural practices demands a high degree of technical knowledge and the mastery of many specialized skills. Indeed, if the majority of farmers permit their practices to lag behind the technical knowledge available, our national economy will be gravely affected. Agricultural education and practice are of fundamental importance.

51. In planning the general educational programme, we have included agriculture as a major subject. Through courses in agriculture, students in

secondary schools will have an opportunity for exploration and practical work. In junior colleges specialized courses in agriculture will be available for vocational as well as for university-preparatory purposes. Those who desire training at the university level in agricultural and allied sciences may pursue intensive specialization along scientific lines at the Ontario Agricultural College.

52. However, these provisions will not alone meet fully the need for practical training in specialized branches, arising from the specialization and mechanization of modern agriculture.¹ In addition to training provided in the schools of the general educational system, practical training will be required in specialized branches of agriculture, similar to that envisaged in our recommendations concerning provincial technical institutes and apprenticeship training. To this training, our general recommendations relating to practical training for other fields of industry will also apply. Eventually, a number of agricultural institutes should be established to provide short, intensive courses and, in a broader field, longer specialized programmes. In addition, agricultural courses will be provided as part of the programme of part-time education in day and night classes. There is good reason to believe that a form of apprenticeship training in agriculture may in time be necessary.

53. Responsibility for the organization and financing of agricultural institutes and of apprenticeship training in agriculture will probably lie with the Department of Education or with the Department of Agriculture. The Department of Education should have major responsibility for the establishment and operation of institutes and for the provision of facilities for part-time education; for any system of apprenticeship training in agriculture, the Department of Agriculture should assume the same responsibility that the Department of Labour does in other industrial fields. There should be co-operation and co-ordination of effort between the Departments of Education and Agriculture.

54. In addition to the provision made for courses in agriculture in secondary schools and junior colleges, we recommend

- (a) *that, where the need is demonstrated, part-time courses of instruction in agriculture be provided by local education authorities responsible for post-elementary education, as part of their general programme of part-time education;*
- (b) *that the Department of Education establish and operate provincial agricultural institutes under provisions similar to those hereinbefore specified for other provincial technical institutes;*
- (c) *that consideration be given to the advisability of establishing a system of apprenticeship training in agriculture;*
- (d) *that co-operation between county agricultural representatives and teachers of agriculture be continued and encouraged.*

¹See Brief 1, *Rural Education*, submitted by the Agricultural Commission of Inquiry.

EDUCATION IN RURAL AREAS

55. One hundred years ago Ontario was predominantly rural, and the people lived mostly in scattered clearings hewn from the forest. As we indicated in Chapter I, the typical school was a primitively furnished structure built of logs, in which the rudiments of education were imparted. But conditions have changed. Today the population of Ontario is predominantly urban and our wealth is derived in large measure from industries other than agriculture. The educational scene has undergone a corresponding change; today more than two-thirds of the children enrolled in elementary schools live in urban centres. Nevertheless, 166,000 children are in attendance at rural schools under the jurisdiction of approximately 4,000 boards of school trustees; and education in rural areas has retained many of its distinctive problems, although changing economic and social conditions are rapidly making it possible to effect satisfactory solutions.

56. Educational facilities in rural areas have improved almost beyond measure: great progress has been made in improving buildings, accommodation, equipment, school programmes, and qualifications of teachers. Nevertheless, there are many who maintain that the improvements have failed to keep pace with those in urban areas. This is evident in the following critical quotations selected from briefs relating to education in rural areas:

Rural children do not now have educational opportunities which are equivalent to those enjoyed by urban children.

Teachers in rural schools are frequently inexperienced and inadequately trained.

The more successful teachers often transfer to urban schools in a short time and thus create a lack of continuity of good teaching in the rural areas.

School accommodations and equipment are frequently inadequate in rural schools.

The secondary school education of the majority of rural pupils is dependent on the ability of their parents to finance their transportation or their living-away-from-home.

The School Attendance Act needs to be more effective in some rural sections of the province.

57. From personal observation and study and from evidence submitted to us, we are convinced that educational conditions in many rural areas are not satisfactory. In our opinion, they are a direct result of the system of administration and finance of education which prevails in rural areas and of the attempt to provide an educational programme for an excessive number of grades (in some cases ten). We feel that deficiencies will be overcome through the implementation of our proposals—reorganizing the stages of education, establishing larger units of administration, and adopting a new method of financing. Given adequately trained and interested teachers, suitable buildings and equipment, appropriate curricula and courses of study, freedom to adapt the courses of study to meet local conditions, and

special educational services, any school, no matter where located, can provide for the complete development of its pupils. In the new elementary schools the basic programme will be the same for rural and urban areas. This will be true also of the new secondary schools, but the latter will provide an opportunity, through optional subjects, for a bias in the direction of industry, commerce, or agriculture. There need, therefore, be no disparity between rural and urban education. Under the arrangements we suggest, education authorities in rural areas will be able to provide adequate educational facilities and to adapt programmes to meet their own specific local needs.

58. When considering rural education, however, we are particularly conscious of the needs of many isolated sections of our province. We are concerned over the plight of boys and girls in some sparsely settled areas and are convinced that special provisions will be required for their education. The effectiveness of the educational facilities available has been seriously undermined in some rural sections because the statutes and regulations relating to compulsory school attendance have not been strictly enforced. This should not be tolerated, and elsewhere we suggest provisions for their enforcement.

59. The contention that our schools "educate" children away from the farm has been made on numerous occasions, but we doubt that its general truth has been substantiated. We incline to the view that the factors which "took children away from the farm" in the past were fundamentally economic and social rather than educational. We do not believe that certain things should be taught to rural children merely because they live in the country, or that all rural children, or only rural children, should become workers on the land when they leave school. But we do subscribe whole-heartedly to the view that children attending rural schools are entitled to the best possible educational opportunity. This is not to say that rural schools should be facsimiles of urban schools; on the contrary, we have stressed that the needs peculiar to specific areas can be best met through local adaptations of the programme.

60. Fortunately, economic and social conditions in rural areas have changed almost beyond belief in the present century. No longer does life on the farm necessarily mean unremitting toil and deadening manual labour for incredibly long hours and under primitive living conditions; the gasoline engine, electricity, radio, and changes in farm machinery and farm practices have transformed rural life. The physical comforts of the urban dwelling are now generally available, as well as the arts and other means of culture; farm homes are no longer isolated, even in winter; and life in clean and healthful surroundings in the country is the envy of many of those who live in crowded cities. Under these conditions, an education such as we have planned will not, in our opinion, lead "away from the farm" those who have the requisite interest and ability. The provisions we have outlined for agri-

cultural and homemaking education should assist greatly in the development of stable and prosperous agricultural communities.

CO-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

61. In the programme of the modern school, extra-curricular activities occupy an important place. Some of the most commonly found are team sports, literary and debating societies, choirs, orchestras, glee clubs, dramatic societies, hobby crafts, nature clubs, and camera clubs. In our opinion, activities of this type assist in the development of the individual; they are within the responsibility of the school; and they should be considered complementary to the prescribed curriculum. They should not be regarded as “fads and frills”, dissipating the school’s energies, but as worthy enterprises contributing to student growth. Convinced of their value, we suggest that such activities be termed “co-curricular” to indicate that they form an integral part of the school programme.

62. Participation in co-curricular activities provides opportunities for a student to learn and practise the responsibilities of group living and to evaluate his own abilities and achievements. It promotes the development of avocational interests which are worthy and socially acceptable. We suggest that in each school there be provided a varied programme of purposeful co-curricular activities in accordance with the needs, interests, and abilities of the students. In larger schools it would be advisable to have some member of the staff act, under the supervision of the principal, as director of the programme. He would have a number of responsibilities: to encourage worthy activities; to supervise those activities largely under student control; to assist each student to participate in some activity; to ensure that no student engages in so many activities that his progress in the other activities of the school programme is jeopardized; to equalize the load of co-curricular supervision among the members of the staff; and to arrange the co-curricular programme so that its operation extends over the full school year.

63. We recommend

- (a) *that the term “co-curricular” be applied to those activities of the school programme which are ancillary to the prescribed provincial curriculum, and which heretofore have been termed extra-curricular;*
- (b) *that in the interests of the all-round development of students, local education authorities be encouraged to provide adequate programmes of co-curricular activities and supervision of such programmes by members of their teaching staffs.*

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS IN EDUCATION

64. Audio-visual aids are devices by which a teacher, through an appeal to more than one of the senses, endeavours to clarify, establish, and cor-

relate accurate concepts, interpretations, and appreciations. They are of a wide variety in type and include the blackboard, bulletin board, charts, dramatics, flat pictures, graphs, maps, models, objects and specimens, motion pictures, phonographs, posters, cartoons and clippings, radio, stereoscopes, projected pictures, tours and visits.

65. Audio-visual instruction is not a new development. Some of the forms of visual aids used today originated centuries ago; sand, boards, and slate were the predecessors of the modern blackboard; and objects and specimens have always been used in schools. Excursions were a common practice in ancient Greek education; and since the invention of printing, pictures and illustrations in books have been constantly used. The value and usefulness of audio-visual aids were demonstrated centuries ago. The problems today are to select those aids most suitable for the purpose in hand; to develop the most effective methods of using them; and to provide that their use be always ancillary to, and not a substitution for, the skill and ability of the teacher.

66. In recent years, the Ontario Department of Education has promoted the use of films and radio broadcasts in schools. The Visual Education Branch began operation in 1936, using the lantern slides of the Province of Ontario Motion Picture Bureau. Teaching notes were forwarded with the slides. Later, silent and sound films were added to the library. The increasing interest of teachers in their use may be illustrated by the following figures. During the year 1943, there were 6,932 showings of films to a total school audience of 676,184 pupils. In 1947, films were screened on 42,767 occasions, with a total attendance of 4,471,307 students. More than 1,200 schools are now registered with the Audio-Visual Education Branch for film and slide service. This expansion occurred in spite of a scarcity of equipment during and immediately following the Second World War.

67. The film library of the Audio-Visual Education Branch contains a large number of films on social studies, natural science, vocational guidance, health and safety, music, physical education, art and crafts, English, home economics, teacher training, and vocational and technical topics. Silent films are also distributed to schools and standard slides are in fairly constant circulation. No charge is made by the Department of Education for the use of films or slides; requests for them are made on a standard requisition form, signed by the principal of the school. A catalogue containing regulations, directions for ordering films, suggestions for effective use, and a description of films is forwarded to each school making application for film service. Every effort is made to select for the library of the Branch films which are directly related to topics in the programmes of studies. Departmental officials, school administrators, and teachers meet to evaluate new material. Films for use in elementary school grades are carefully correlated with the programme of studies. The use of film strips as a teaching aid has also been encouraged. In order to have them available for immediate use,

and in view of their lower cost as compared with sound films, the Department is encouraging the purchase by individual schools of film strips approved and recommended by the Branch. Teachers enrolled in the audio-visual education summer courses are co-operating in the annual revision of the approved list of film strips for use in specified subjects and at specified grade levels.

68. In order to take advantage of the film service provided by the Audio-Visual Education Branch, it is necessary for local education authorities to purchase projectors and screens. The cost of such equipment is included as part of approved cost for general legislative grant purposes. Local home and school associations and other organizations have made an important contribution toward audio-visual education through assistance in the purchase of necessary equipment. Thirty projectionists, employed by the National Film Board to work on rural area circuits, provide film programmes for many rural schools. Films for use in these schools are provided by the Audio-Visual Education Branch on an extended-loan basis.

69. The use of such teaching aids must be evaluated in relation to effectiveness and cost, and under no circumstances should the regular school programme be jeopardized through their indiscriminate use. Teachers need to know the correct function, proper use, and limitations of each type of audio-visual aid and should be trained in its use. The training should be basic, and not designed to develop a high technical skill. For this purpose, the present summer courses in audio-visual education methods should be continued, including the use of films and film strips, evaluation, radio and recordings, non-projected visual aids, and projector operation.

70. In 1943, the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, in collaboration with the nine provincial Departments of Education, presented the first series of National School Broadcasts heard on a coast-to-coast network, with the purpose of strengthening the sense of Canadian citizenship. By agreement between the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation and the Canadian Education Association, the National Advisory Council on School Broadcasting was set up, with representatives of the Departments of Education, the National Conference of Canadian Universities, the Canadian Teachers' Federation, the Canadian Trustees' Association, and the Canadian Federation of Home and School. Parallel with this development in the national field was a rapid growth in provincial school broadcasting. In 1944, the Ontario Department of Education produced an experimental series of educational broadcasts in music, social studies, English, and guidance.

71. Broadcasts for elementary and secondary schools are now presented each year, from October to April, by the Department of Education. They are intended to provide supplementary material acceptable to schools as an enlargement of the daily programme, and care is taken that each broadcast bears a definite relationship to some topic in the courses of study. A pamphlet outlining the complete programme of school broadcasts is pre-

pared and distributed to teachers in September by the Audio-Visual Education Branch.

72. Professional script writers are employed through the services of the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, but each script is approved by the official of the Department of Education in charge of the series. The Canadian Broadcasting Corporation is responsible for engaging the actors or musicians required and for putting the programme on the air. Costs of script writing and production are borne by the Audio-Visual Education Branch of the Department of Education, while the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation co-operates by supplying time on the air, free of charge, with "wire-line" service and studio and production facilities. In order to ensure coverage, the programme of school broadcasts is offered to local private stations, whose response has generally been enthusiastic and generous.

73. In addition to provincial and national school broadcasts originating in Canada, certain programmes selected from the Columbia Broadcasting System "American School of the Air" are made available, on Mondays and Thursdays, to Ontario schools. The "March of Science" and "Tales of Adventure" series are representative of these programmes. Surveys of the use of school broadcasts are conducted annually by the Department. In 1946, for example, it was revealed that slightly over 40 per cent of all secondary schools were using broadcasts, and reports from elementary school inspectors indicate a fairly wide use in elementary schools. It is apparent that school broadcasting is assuming considerable proportions and that it provides enrichment material to stimulate student imagination and broaden intellectual horizons.

74. We therefore recommend

- (a) *that the programme for the professional preparation of teachers include instruction in the selection, use, and evaluation of audio-visual aids;*
- (b) *that provision be made, through summer courses and otherwise, for the instruction of teachers in service in the effective use of audio-visual aids;*
- (c) *that consideration be given to decentralization of the audio-visual programme of the Department of Education through the establishment of local libraries of approved films and other aids;*
- (d) *that the Audio-Visual Education Branch continue to be responsible for the supervision, direction, and co-ordination of the provincial programme of audio-visual education;*
- (e) *that developments in frequency modulation broadcasting and television, and other technical advancements receive careful study by the Department of Education in respect to their value and possible use in school broadcasts;*
- (f) *that approved expenditures on equipment and supplies for audio-visual education be included as part of approved cost of operating for general legislative grant purposes.*

TEXTBOOKS AND CLASSROOM SUPPLIES

75. Under the Common Schools Act of 1816,¹ the establishment, support, and control of schools, the choice of textbooks and courses, and the appointment of teachers were left largely to local trustees. That there was some fear of foreign influence is shown by two restrictions imposed by the Act; teachers had to be British subjects, and trustees had to report every three months, for the approval of the district board of education, the titles of books in use in their school. Each district board was authorized to spend up to £100 of its share of the legislative grant for books to be distributed to schools.

76. Under the Act of 1824,² a General Board of Education for the province was given power to prescribe textbooks and courses of study for common and grammar schools. This movement toward centralization was reversed by the Act of 1843 which restored to local trustees the choice of textbooks and courses.

77. The report of Dr. Egerton Ryerson on the school system inspired the School Act of 1846³ which returned to the central authority responsibility for the selection of textbooks and courses. The introduction by Ryerson, in 1846, of the Irish National Readers was the first step in a movement toward uniformity. The principle, then established, of selecting and listing books for each grade and subject, to be used in all schools of the province, has not been appreciably altered since. Ryerson at first selected books for listing from the open market. Later, as necessity arose, books were prepared specifically for use in Ontario, sometimes at the direction of the central authority. It is interesting to note that the first school book prepared especially for use in Upper Canada was an arithmetic written by the Rev. John Strachan and published in Montreal in 1809. Gradually, the Department of Education assumed general responsibility for the preparation of textbooks. They were usually purchased under long-term contracts at a price fixed by tender. When the last general revision of the curriculum was made in 1936, however, the practice of selecting books from the open market was re-introduced. At the present time, with the exception of two or three survivals from the list of departmentally prepared books, all authorized texts are publishers' books.

78. School textbooks are given official listing by the Department of Education in a variety of ways; they may be authorized, or prescribed, or approved, or recommended. Each classification has its own special significance.

79. A book is authorized when a contract for its publication is drawn up between the Minister of Education and the publisher and ratified by Order-in-Council. This procedure enables the Department to control the quality and supply of books, and, since the publisher has an assured sale

¹56 Geo. III, Ch. 36, S.U.C.

²4 Geo. IV, Ch. 8, S.U.C.

³9 Vict., Ch. 20, S.P.C.

for a period of years, a favourable price is usually secured. The authorization of a book is made effective by provisions in several school Acts¹ forbidding pupils to use unauthorized books. A list of authorized textbooks is published in an annual circular. In a recent circular, 72 authorized books are listed, 26 in the elementary section, and 48 in the secondary, with the titles of two books occurring in both lists. Many of the authorized books have been revised from time to time, but the replacement of many of them is overdue.

80. The former practice of having books prepared under departmental direction was virtually abandoned with the revision of the curriculum in 1936. Since that time the selection of books for authorization has been made by committees appointed for the purpose. These committees have, in many cases, recommended and supervised alterations or revisions so as to adapt chosen books to the requirements of the courses of study, or to make them more suitable for use in the schools. In a few cases the list of authorized texts has been expanded to provide multiple authorizations—that is, instead of listing only one authorized book for a subject or grade, two or three have been listed. Under this arrangement teachers are free to choose the book or the series of books which they prefer, subject to the approval of their board of trustees.

81. The prices of authorized texts and the discount to be allowed by the publishers are fixed in the original contract. They have long borne favourable comparison with those prevailing elsewhere. Some prices have been abnormally low because of subventions paid by the Department. In 1943, rising costs of production led publishers to request a general subsidy of 10 per cent on the retail prices of all authorized books. In spite of this subsidy, which was allowed, it became necessary to grant increases in retail prices.

82. For the departmental grade XIII examinations it is necessary to prescribe literary works for study in English and the foreign languages. The selections are made by joint committees representing the Department, the universities, and teachers. Since the list of books is revised or reprinted annually, it is not a list of authorized books, and departmental responsibility extends only to ensuring adequate supply. Unless copyright or a particular abridgment is involved, any publisher may offer an edition, and prices then become competitive.

83. Books listed as approved and recommended fall into several categories. In general, there is more freedom in their use than in the case of authorized books.

(1) A set of eight readers has been approved, at the request of separate school authorities, for use in Roman Catholic separate schools as

¹*The Public Schools Act*, Secs. 103 (d), 105, 120, 133; *The High Schools Act*, Sec. 60, subsection 1, and Sec. 66; *The Separate Schools Act*, Secs. 49 and 94; *The Department of Education Act* and regulations thereunder, O. Reg. 95/47, Sec. 28 and Schedule 1.

alternatives to the authorized readers; these are neither subsidized nor controlled as to price by the Department.

- (2) Books used in vocational schools, apart from those used in courses covered by the secondary school authorized list, are described in a departmental circular as approved and recommended by authority of *The Vocational Schools Act*. Generally speaking, there is a choice of books for each subject and grade, and the prices, being competitive, are kept at a reasonable level.
- (3) It has never been customary to authorize books for grade XIII courses. Originally the numbers involved were too small to justify authorization, and it has been felt that freedom of choice was desirable for senior classes. Teachers have been free to select books outside the recommended lists. The only restriction has been a requirement that books selected for use should be approved by formal resolution of the local board.
- (4) In the case of subjects like Italian and Spanish, where the number of pupils is small and authorization is impracticable, textbooks are recommended. In all the modern languages, reading of several books is required, and the choice of these is left to the teacher. Lists of recommended books are provided in the course of study, but teachers are free to use books not on these lists.
- (5) Freedom of choice is also permitted in the case of books in English literature in secondary schools, where several types of books, such as fiction, biography, and modern plays, are to be used in each grade. Teachers are free to make their own selection from the suggested lists or outside them. There is no dearth of available material, and the teachers generally welcome freedom of choice.

84. Pupils may be asked to provide all these books, in exactly the same way as they may be required to buy authorized texts. There are, however, classes of recommended or approved books which the board is expected to provide. Books required for supplementary reading or for reference in English, history, geography, science, and foreign languages, and books required for reference in art, health, agriculture, horticulture, shopwork, and home economics are to be provided by the board on the recommendation of the principal. This applies both to single copies of reference books and to class sets which are valuable in teaching reading, geography, history, and science.

85. Textbooks play an indispensable part in any system of group teaching. They economize effort for pupil and teacher. For the teacher the textbook serves as a guide to both the content and the organization of the course. In the pupil's hands it may be used to prepare for, or to supplement, classroom instruction.

86. The importance of having the best possible textbooks is obvious. The textbook strongly influences the pupil's attitude toward a subject of

study and contributes to success or failure in his work. However, a single textbook, even a good one, combined with a fixed course of study, has a limiting effect. If a topic is not in the textbook or is not mentioned in the course of study, the student may dismiss it as unimportant. A choice of subject matter and emphasis, which should depend to some extent on local interests, cannot be readily achieved with a single authorized text. Changing interests and conditions, fresh knowledge, new developments in methods or in the interrelations of courses demand freedom to make necessary adjustments. This is not possible where one textbook is authorized for a long term of years.

87. All these considerations point to the value of having several books for each subject or grade. The system of authorizing a single book for a subject or grade has the advantage of ensuring economy, but it has very definite limitations. Experience with multiple authorization has shown that freedom of choice is most desirable and that the extent to which any one of the alternative books is chosen is a fair measure of its relative merits. Furthermore, a form of departmental listing for vocational schools has been tried and found satisfactory over a period of years. It consists of approving whole lists of books, and it is adequate proof that a list of alternative books can be freely increased or reduced while maintaining prices at a reasonable level. The existing system of authorizing books for some specific subjects or grades to the exclusion of all other books should be replaced by a less rigid system in which a number of suitable books are approved for each course or grade. Under such a system schools will be better able to adjust courses to meet local needs.

88. It might be argued that if freedom in the choice of books is to be accorded it ought to be complete and left entirely to the local authority, as it is in England and in some parts of the United States. We believe, however, that until larger units of administration under boards responsible for the supervision of instruction are common throughout the province the selection of books and their official listing should be a function of the Department of Education.

89. Experience seems to indicate that if suitable books are not immediately available they are quickly prepared by publishers to meet any need, and that only in exceptional cases should it be necessary for the Department of Education to undertake the preparation of a textbook. The possibility that a book could be added at any time to an approved list would be an incentive to publishers to bring out new and better books. This incentive has been lacking under the static system of authorization in effect until recently. In a memorandum on curriculum revision, of December 10, 1949, the Minister of Education announced certain changes in established policies relating to textbooks. Authorization of the readers in use for grades I to VI was discontinued. Permissive use of basic reading series from an approved list was made possible, and it was intended that other series might

be added to the list from time to time. Boards of trustees were to provide sufficient readers for the use of pupils, and expenditures for the purchase were to be eligible for purposes of general legislative grants, without regard to "ceiling". Since we had made a similar decision prior to this announcement by the Minister of Education, we agree with these changes in departmental policy and urge their extension to other types of textbooks, particularly with reference to local freedom of choice.

90. In most of the provinces of Canada some free classroom supplies as well as textbooks are provided. Under the present system of grants the elementary schools of Ontario are moving rapidly toward providing pupils with free books and materials. Present legislation makes such provision permissive; but, since the expenditures are to be approved for purposes of general legislative grants, it seems likely that the practice will become general. It would be logical, therefore, to require boards to supply all textbooks and supplies free of charge, at least in the new elementary and secondary schools. The cost to the Department would be no greater than that to which it is at present committed.

91. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that the present system of textbook authorization, requiring the use of only one specified textbook in certain subjects or grades, be discontinued;*
- (b) *that the present system, whereby the Department of Education subsidizes the cost of production of authorized textbooks, be discontinued;*
- (c) *that a system of multiple authorizations, whereby each board of trustees will be free to choose a textbook, or textbooks, for any subject or grade from a list of approved titles prepared by the Department of Education, be instituted;*
- (d) *that school boards continue to be authorized to provide, free of charge, textbooks and other approved classroom supplies to pupils in attendance in elementary and secondary schools and in special education classes during the period of compulsory school attendance; and that expenditures incurred for the purchase of textbooks selected from an approved list issued by the Department, and for other approved classroom supplies, be included as a cost of operating for general legislative grant purposes.*

LIBRARIES IN ONTARIO

92. It is not too much to say that the invention of printing has made us, intellectually, what we are. Nor is it too much to say that once formal education has ended and the personal contribution of the teacher has ceased books remain the most significant of all education media. It follows that, since in no system does education end with the school life of the child, we have to plan for the voluntary continuance throughout life of education

through books. Books for most people mean borrowed books; and, for most people again, borrowed books mean public library books. Public libraries, therefore, should be treated as an integral part of the educational system.

93. The subject will be considered under the following headings: (1) Classroom Libraries, (2) School Libraries, (3) Public Libraries, and (4) Provincial Library.

(1) *Classroom Libraries*

94. *The Public Schools Act*, Section 89 (f), includes among the duties of boards that of establishing and maintaining school libraries. Section 54 (1) (f) of the same Act permits the issuing of debentures for a number of purposes, including that of providing a school library.

95. The Public Libraries Branch of the Department of Education provides a valuable service by sending collections of books—travelling libraries—to schools without libraries or to small schools whose libraries need to be supplemented. This is shown by the following record of the number of books sent to elementary and secondary schools: 1937—8,000; 1942—16,000; 1947—53,000; 1948—55,000. Books sent to elementary schools constitute 80 per cent; of the remaining 20 per cent, two-thirds are sent to adults, one-third to secondary schools.

96. In the *Programme of Studies for Grades VII and VIII*, page 43, appears this statement:

The Classroom Library

To cultivate properly the love of reading and to form the habit of finding in books information and enjoyment, students must have ready access to reading material. Every classroom, then, should have a small, well-chosen, attractive library . . . Boys and girls should also be encouraged to make use of the facilities offered by community libraries. Teachers in rural areas without library service may apply to the Travelling Libraries Branch, Department of Education, Parliament Buildings, Toronto, for the loan of a box of books for a limited period to supplement the classroom library.

There is a similar statement in the *Programme of Studies for Grades I to VI*, page 35.

97. It will be noticed that the above quotation suggests a *classroom* library. Few elementary schools, other than those in urban municipalities, have accommodation to provide a separate room for a school library. A classroom library, however, is possible in every elementary school in the province, and in nearly every case some attempt is made to provide one equipped with reference material and supplementary reading material. The extent and effective use of the library must in every case depend on the interest and ability of the teacher. The basic purpose of classroom libraries is auxiliary to formal classroom instruction, and for the most part the books are directly related to the studies of the pupil.

(2) *School Libraries*

98. A secondary school is required by law to have a library, but, since there is no specification of standards, the quality of library service varies with the interest of the principal or board and with the degree of support these receive. There are many good libraries; but the general level of library service in all but the larger schools is far from satisfactory. In the secondary school the basic purpose of the library is the same as that of the classroom library in the elementary school. Pupils are taught to use books collaterally with their classroom instruction. The only difference is that owing to the organization of classes it is advantageous in the secondary school to have the library centralized. In both instances books are tools in education, and under the present school programmes their importance has been greatly increased.

99. Books, however, may also be used for their own sake: not as direct educational tools, but as a means of creating and fostering that love of books and reading which assists the continued development of the individual in post-school life. A recent report on a nation-wide survey of British public libraries¹ makes the following statement:

Children need those books which will make them aware of the extent of life's activities and interests, and which will stimulate curiosity and the desire for knowledge, and foster the imaginative faculties, encouraging the development of individuality and that intimate personal resourcefulness which alone is the foundation of happiness.

It has been argued that this should be the prime aim of our educational system and not a mere contingent by-product which materializes only in a minority of cases. Indeed, it has been suggested that, with outstanding exceptions, the present system of supplementary reading detracts from, and possibly destroys, the love of reading which it is its main purpose to create. There is much to be gained by a continuing study of the situation by teachers and librarians who are willing to explore the whole problem anew.

100. The majority of pupils go directly, and perhaps not unwillingly, from school to a work-a-day world in which they have to earn their living. Unless they have already acquired the habit of reading for reading's sake, they enter on a period of "educational forgetting". Those who gladly leave school behind tend to discard everything associated with their school work; and if books are unknown to them except as educational tools, then books also are likely to be discarded. This is a profligate waste of much of the cost of school education. The only antidote is an application of the technique which has been developed in working with boys and girls in progressive public libraries where it has been proved beyond doubt that with skilled

¹Lionel R. McColvin, F.L.A., *Public Library System of Great Britain*. London: The Library Assn., 1942, p. 2.

and unobtrusive guidance children can readily acquire a lasting love of books.

101. School libraries, as distinct from classroom libraries, should employ this technique. Undoubtedly the work is done more successfully in the boys' and girls' departments of public libraries. But where, through distance or traffic hazards, children do not have reasonable access to a public library, a school library administered on the same lines is the best substitute. Experience has shown that school libraries of this type are best operated as a part of the local public library system. This is effected through co-operation between the local board of school trustees and the public library board. It cannot be expected that a teacher should know the content of say two thousand hand-picked books which form the constantly changing book stock of a boys' and girls' library. Nor has the teacher time or opportunity to evaluate the flood of books published each year. This is a librarian's job, for which he has been specially trained in the university library-training schools at Toronto or McGill. The book knowledge of librarians is no less important than the books in the library.

102. Some secondary school libraries endeavour to foster a love of books and reading in addition to making the library a school workshop, but many people doubt whether the two functions can be successfully combined and whether the workshop aspect does not inevitably submerge the other. Indeed, public libraries are largely used as workshops by secondary school students, although secondary school libraries exist. It would therefore appear that secondary school libraries do not adequately fulfil their function even as workshops. If this is so, it is probable that there would be a substantial gain if secondary school libraries concentrated on the workshop function and if the other aspect of young people's reading were recognized as a function of the public library.

(3) *Public Libraries*

103. With one or two notable exceptions only the larger public libraries are equipped to undertake these tasks satisfactorily, and even the largest and best public libraries are inadequately financed in view of their opportunities. Many of the smaller public libraries are poverty-stricken institutions. If the public library is recognized as a main channel for adult education, and if its work with boys and girls of elementary school age and with young people of post-elementary school age is recognized as the best preparation for voluntarily continued education, the following figures are disturbing. They show a paucity, both of local expenditures on libraries and of legislative grant. It should be remembered that the elementary and secondary education costs which are referred to are for school pupils only; the cost of the public library is for school pupils plus all adults.

	<i>From Local Taxes, etc.</i>	<i>From Government Grants^a</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Cost of Elementary and Secondary Education</i>			
1946	\$37,651,813	\$29,289,637	\$66,941,450
1947	46,310,138	30,186,049	76,496,187
1948	54,933,356	32,676,262	87,609,618
<i>Cost of Public Libraries</i>			
1946	1,766,437	105,000	1,871,437
1947	1,942,471	260,000	2,202,471
1948	2,039,626	305,000	2,344,626

^aSome small additional grants are made to county libraries and association libraries.

104. Moreover, 33 per cent of the population of the province is without public library service; only 5 per cent of the rural population has this service. The difference between these percentages is partly caused by the difficulty of administering public libraries in small centres and in rural areas. At present, county councils have no power to establish public libraries. With the establishment of larger administrative areas for public library purposes, the problem would become relatively simple. It has been solved by county libraries in Great Britain and elsewhere. A public book service by “bookmobiles” passed the experimental stage over 15 years ago and is now a well established method of book distribution in Canada, Britain, and the United States. Under present conditions, even suburban areas are usually without library service, although in this case adequate urban libraries are in the vicinity. Here, the solution is the establishment of “metropolitan areas” for library purposes to enable libraries of larger towns and cities to extend their services beyond their municipal boundaries where such procedure would provide the most satisfactory service for the whole district.

105. Government grants, as compared with those of a few years ago, have been generally increased, and recognition has been given in the “weighted” grants to the certification of librarians with a view to the improvement of service. Nevertheless, if public library service is regarded as an educational service, the grants remain pitifully low. A substantial grant approximately equal to local expenditure on public libraries would be the best stimulus to local endeavour. The development of work with boys and girls should be made one of the conditions of the weighted grants.

106. There is no doubt that the Public Libraries Branch of the Department of Education needs considerable expansion. The Director should be provided with adequate field officers and not be expected to traverse the whole province and carry on his office work at the same time. He should be

provided with librarians who can specialize in work with boys and girls and young people, and who can give guidance and assistance to small public and school libraries.

(4) *Provincial Library*

107. Even with more adequate grants, public libraries in small centres will be unable to offer the range of services given in the larger cities. An expensive book bought for a large library might be used by twenty readers in that library. Quite apart from lack of funds, it would be uneconomical for a small library to purchase the book for the needs of perhaps only a single reader. Yet readers in small centres and in rural areas should not suffer because of this fact. The local library and the individual rural reader should be able to borrow such a book from a provincial library. A reader anywhere in the province should be assured that any reasonable request for any particular book would be met. This is not a high-flown ideal. Such a standard of public book supply now applies throughout the United Kingdom. The British County Libraries issue a statement which reads:

DO YOU LIVE MILES FROM ANYWHERE?

The County Library postal service brings the resources of the nation's libraries within your reach.

108. British Columbia has a provincial library administered on a basis similar to that used in the United Kingdom; it also gives a complete reference service by mail to readers in all parts of the province. Quebec has purchased the St. Sulpice Library with a view to establishing a similar service. Plans are afoot for some such service in Manitoba. Prince Edward Island has worked out a kind of provincial library service by combining the books of the Legislative Library and the Charlottetown Public Library.

109. A provincial library would meet many specialized needs which have been brought to our attention and would include the lending of plays, music scores, and probably films. It would also provide a province-wide reference service by mail and establish and maintain a "union catalogue" of the books in the "reading" libraries within the province. This would enable scholars, research workers, and other readers with specialized needs to find what is available in their particular field, and would be a guide to small libraries in their "borrowings".

110. We therefore recommend

that a provincial library be established to serve as a reservoir from which public libraries and individual readers might borrow books which the local public library is unable to purchase, and to provide a province-wide reference service by mail.

The erection of a separate building for this purpose and the provision of necessary books would involve large financial expenditures. Therefore, to effect economy, we recommend as an alternative

that the proposed provincial library be based on an existing public library which already possesses a large book stock and microfilm or photostat facilities.

The most logical and economical method would appear to be to make use of the facilities of the Toronto Public Library, which has the necessary land area and experienced personnel, and which is now, to a limited extent, acting on a provincial basis for library purposes. Accommodation could be extended as required. We further recommend

- (a) that county councils be empowered and encouraged to establish public library services; and that the formation of metropolitan areas for library service be promoted;*
- (b) that the establishment and operation of classroom libraries in elementary schools continue to be encouraged; and that public libraries be stimulated to establish boys' and girls' departments and, where special conditions so require, to establish and administer school libraries as distinct from classroom libraries;*
- (c) that the establishment and operation of school libraries be continued as a requirement for all post-elementary schools; that they be in charge of persons certificated both as teachers and librarians; that standards of administration be set up under the guidance of the provincial Director of Public Library Service; and that public libraries be stimulated to establish adequate young people's departments as distinct from the workshop aspect of post-elementary school libraries;*
- (d) that the amount of legislative grants to public libraries be increased to approximately 50 per cent of their total expenditures; and that library service for boys and girls and young people be added to the factors which at present determine the distribution of grants;*
- (e) that the Public Libraries Branch of the Department of Education be expanded to include a field officer for general inspectional and guidance work and a librarian specially trained in work with boys and girls and young people, who will inspect libraries and also give guidance in implementing the above recommendations concerning library service for boys and girls and young people.*

RESEARCH AND EXPERIMENTATION IN EDUCATION

111. Throughout most of the history of the world educational progress has been slow. Indeed, there have been periods when, for centuries, education was static or actually retrogressed. Today, there is such an acceleration in the rate at which scientific discoveries are altering man's environment that fear is often expressed that man is being given new power faster than he can develop capacity to handle it, and that he must perish unless, through education, he can adjust himself to changing conditions. It is obvious that developments in education are much less dramatic and far-

reaching than in the broad field of science. Yet it is essential that education in a changing world should adapt itself to new circumstances if it is to be of real worth and remain in touch with reality; and the need for change spells a need for research and experimentation. So long as education is static, research and experimentation are not required; but when development is demanded, both become necessary to ensure that changes are made with sound judgment based on findings obtained by scientific inquiry.

112. The present urgent need for research, including experimentation, is fully recognized by leading educationists. No longer is it felt that age or authority alone is sufficient to sanctify a theory, or that custom alone is sufficient to justify a practice. Rather is it believed that even time-hallowed traditions must be examined impartially and that educational theories and practices must stand or fall by the test of objective inquiry. It may be desired, for example, to learn whether the formal study of English grammar is an aid to the cultivation of correct English usage; whether a well balanced mid-day lunch will sufficiently improve the health and educational achievement of pupils to justify the cost; or whether there are gross inequalities in educational opportunity. The answers to these and many like problems can be secured only through experimentation and research.

113. Indeed, the wiser and more experienced among those who are entrusted with the shaping of educational patterns have learned that they cannot lightly trust their own unsupported opinions. They have seen too many of the commonly held opinions exploded by the findings of experimentation. Research probes into every corner of the vast field of education. Investigators have studied, among other problems, pupil health, school buildings, personality and character development, vocational guidance, units of administration, school finance, and teacher training. Today, consequently, research influences the nature of educational progress to a very considerable extent.

114. The briefs presented to us support these opinions. In almost every one of them a need for educational research is implied. In a number, specific requests for research studies are made. In this latter group, mention may be made of the briefs presented by the following organizations: Toronto Special Class Teachers' Association (Brief 4); the Special Class Section of the Ontario Educational Association (Brief 11); the Ontario Vocational Guidance Association (Brief 29); the Ontario School Trustees' and Rate-payers' Association (Brief 36); the Teachers of Art and Crafts Section of the Ontario Educational Association (Brief 57); the Ontario Educational Association (Brief 69); the Committee on School Costs, Ontario School Inspectors' Association (Brief 85); and the Ontario Teachers' Federation (Brief 169).

115. *Research and Experiment in Education* (Brief 90), presented by the Research Committee of the Ontario School Inspectors' Association, is the most comprehensive statement received on this subject. It emphasizes

the importance of research in determining educational progress and points out the deficiency in education in this respect as compared with industry, which spends millions of dollars annually on research. It points out that Great Britain, the United States, and other countries have set examples in the establishment of research foundations. Indicative of the extent of research deemed essential is the suggestion of the Research Committee that it is necessary to provide for observation, study, research, and experiment, in methods of instruction, individual differences, diagnostic achievement testing, curriculum, vocabulary, education of handicapped children, child psychology, statistics, materials of instruction, and adult education. To implement their proposed programme, the Research Committee of the Ontario School Inspectors' Association recommended that:

1. The Department of Education finance and greatly increase the expenditure on educational research;
2. A greater number of educational research workers be trained;
3. Psychological, reading, vision, hearing, and diagnostic clinics be developed;
4. Educational surveys be conducted to train teachers and officials to view their problems in the light of actual existing conditions;
5. Diagnostic and achievement tests be prepared to reduce the use of foreign materials and to provide Ontario standards;
6. Bibliographies, reports, abstracts, and research studies be published and circulated widely among school instructors, trustees, and officials;
7. The work of voluntary research organizations in the profession be encouraged;
8. The staff of the Department of Educational Research at the Ontario College of Education be expanded;
9. A Director of Educational Research be appointed by the Department of Education to initiate and conduct research and to act as liaison officer between research organizations or between individuals and research organizations. (A Director of Educational Research might also act as an adviser on curricula.)

In its brief, the Research Committee of the Ontario School Inspectors' Association stated further that:

- (1) Since there are no wealthy research foundations in Canada, the Department of Education should finance and publicize educational research;
- (2) The Department of Education should provide
 - (a) assistantships in the Department of Educational Research;
 - (b) surveys of urban and rural units;
 - (c) circulation of reports;
 - (d) grants-in-aid to individuals and organizations where worthy research is attempted.

In regard to the extent of financial support, the opinion of the Ontario School Inspectors' Association was that:

... the budgets of the voluntary and state-supported research organizations should be increased by five times the present annual expenditure at once. When research personnel is available, the present annual expenditure should be ten times as much.

116. In most of the briefs to which reference has been made, research is urged in those areas of education in which the respective sponsors are

particularly interested. In the briefs which go beyond this, stress is laid on the need for expanded research machinery with an enlarged research budget, and for better methods of publicizing the findings of research studies. It is certain that unless the first of these needs is met few of the other recommendations can be implemented.

117. In our opinion, the major functions of an educational research organization in this province must be:

- (1) To conduct or supervise long-term research in matters relating to education, including improvement in the techniques of research.
- (2) To conduct or supervise experiments in schools and educational clinics.
- (3) To supervise graduate studies in education and, through this and other means, to train research workers.
- (4) To conduct or supervise surveys and experiments and to provide other services of a like nature, at the request of the Department of Education or of local education authorities.
- (5) Upon request, to act in a liaison capacity between research organizations or between individuals and research organizations and to co-ordinate the research work of individuals and voluntary research organizations.
- (6) To publicize the findings of research studies and to provide information to interested parties, particularly to members of the teaching profession and local and provincial school officials.

118. The organization and administration of educational research in Ontario should be planned as economically as possible in view of the fact that our population is small and our financial resources for this purpose are limited. If efforts are dispersed, some of the functions, perhaps those which are most important, may not be fully discharged. The establishment of a central organization, therefore, seems to be indicated. We do not suggest that educational research should be placed under the sole control of a central authority, but that expert advice and assistance be centrally located, and that it be widely known they are available to those who are interested in this field. After studying the methods adopted in other provinces and countries, we have come to the conclusion that research in education in Ontario must be financed primarily through provincial grants from the Department of Education. We favour the establishment of an organization associated with the provincial University, to which research problems of the Department of Education and local education authorities can be referred, rather than the establishment of a research division within the Department of Education itself. The organization we suggest would be most suitable for conducting wide research and supervising graduate work.

119. Our belief has been strengthened by experience in our own province where the Department of Educational Research of the Ontario College of Education in the University of Toronto has been in existence for over fifteen years. Its growth has been continuous, and it is now staffed

by a group of competent and experienced research workers. The present organization consists of a Director, an Assistant Director, and three assistants, with a permanent secretarial staff and a group of temporary or part-time employees. We do not consider it feasible to establish a research division within the Department of Education and, at the same time, to maintain and strengthen the existing Department of Educational Research of the Ontario College of Education. With two organizations dedicated to research in education, it would be difficult, if not impossible, to avoid confusion and waste through duplication of effort. As between establishing a new research body and strengthening an existing organization which is rendering efficient service, we believe the latter is the preferable alternative.

120. The Department of Educational Research, according to our information, has been discharging nearly all the major functions which we have outlined in an earlier paragraph. In our opinion, however, it should pay more attention to the conduct and supervision of experiments in schools, to liaison between research organizations and between individuals and research organizations, and to co-ordination of the research work of other people. Finally, enough has not been done to publicize the findings of research and to make them available to interested groups and individuals.

121. The College of Education offers graduate work toward the degrees of M.A. and Ph.D. in Educational Theory, and toward the degrees of B.Paed. and D.Paed. in Pedagogy. The Research Department can readily direct candidates for degrees to research projects and, through fellowships, assistantships, and part-time employment of students, can constantly train additional research workers. There is ample evidence to support the belief that it has become the recognized research body for the Department of Education and for local education authorities.

122. The suggestions in Brief 90 that "The work of voluntary research organizations in the profession be encouraged," and that "The Department of Education should provide grants-in-aid to individuals and organizations where worthy research is attempted," merit serious consideration. Enterprising people in the profession who have the initiative to experiment should be encouraged. It is appropriate to draw attention, at this point, to various professional groups now engaged in research. The Research Committee of the Ontario School Inspectors' Association, instituted in 1943, has been most diligent in conducting a wide variety of studies. The yearbook of this group is worthy of wide circulation. Inspectors occupy a strategic position both for conducting research in schools and for fostering proper attitudes toward research. Their committee has always worked in close co-operation with the Department of Educational Research, to the benefit of both. There has been a limited amount of research in normal schools, which, in the interests of teacher training, should be expanded. The Ontario Teachers' Federation and its constituent bodies, through appropriate committees, also provide for research. We suggest that the staff of the Department of Edu-

cational Research should, upon request, undertake the supervision and co-ordination of the work of all groups engaged in educational research. This should be regarded as an important responsibility. There is a fairly adequate research library in the Department of Educational Research, and full use should be made of it.

123. Research could be encouraged through the provision by the Department of Education or other agencies of fellowships or assistantships in the Department of Educational Research. An assistant holding a fellowship generally needs training and supervision, but the research techniques he acquires will enhance his value to education in the province. Grants-in-aid are a means of encouraging research at small cost, but, except in unusual circumstances, they should not exceed out-of-pocket expenses incurred. When a grant-in-aid is awarded, the grantor not only has the right but is also under an obligation to insist that the research be conducted under competent guidance, which could normally be given by the Department of Educational Research. Where grants-in-aid are made by or through the Department of Education, they should be distributed by designated officials of the Minister.

124. Research is costly in time, energy, and money, all of which may be largely wasted if results are not made known. The findings of research should, through articles and abstracts, be given the widest possible publicity among those who are most likely to profit from them. This view was supported in briefs submitted to us. For example, Brief 169, submitted by the Ontario Teachers' Federation, suggested "That the Department of Education be asked to keep teachers informed of educational experiments by the publication of bulletins and pamphlets, as well as by the fullest possible use of our professional magazines." Brief 90, submitted by the Committee on Research of the Ontario School Inspectors' Association, suggested that "Bibliographies, reports, abstracts, and research studies be published and circulated widely among school instructors, trustees, and officials." Brief 202, submitted by a group of women inspectors, supervisors, and normal school masters and instructors, suggested "Provision for the dissemination of recent findings of scientific research among teachers in service . . ." In our opinion, publication of research findings should be undertaken by the Department of Educational Research.

125. There is available today a wide variety of techniques and instruments for diagnostic, prognostic, and remedial work in education: intelligence tests; aptitude tests; diagnostic tests; instruments for the measurement of visual and auditory acuity; etc. As far as we can determine, no organized attempt is made in Ontario to evaluate their effectiveness or to determine whether or not they are suitable for use in the schools. The Vocational Guidance Centre of the Ontario College of Education does contribute toward such an attempt, but mainly by acting as a distributing

centre for the selection and sale of guidance materials. The Department of Educational Research, either alone or preferably in co-operation with the Vocational Guidance Centre, should establish what might be called a "Research Clinic" for the purpose of examining and evaluating techniques and instruments. These findings should be made available to interested educators. The main responsibility of the Department of Educational Research, however, must be to conduct and supervise research, not to demonstrate the use of instruments and techniques.

126. With reference to the organization of research and experimentation in education in Ontario, we recommend

- (a) *that the Department of Educational Research in the Ontario College of Education be recognized as the educational research bureau for the province;*
- (b) *that the activities of the Department of Educational Research be financed through provincial grants from the Department of Education;*
- (c) *that the Department of Education provide funds, and solicit additional amounts of money from other sources, to establish scholarships tenable in the College of Education in the University of Toronto for purposes of educational research;*
- (d) *that, through grants-in-aid, the Department of Education encourage research conducted by individuals and educational organizations under the supervision of the Ontario College of Education;*
- (e) *that the Department of Educational Research prepare and distribute widely information relating to the findings of educational research and experimentation;*
- (f) *that the Department of Educational Research and the Vocational Guidance Centre, through the establishment of a Research Clinic, investigate and evaluate developments in instruments and techniques for diagnostic, prognostic, and remedial work in education, and publicize their findings;*
- (g) *that, upon request, the Department of Educational Research co-ordinate, supervise, and assist in research activities in education undertaken by individuals or voluntary organizations.*

CITIZENSHIP AND THE SCHOOL PROGRAMME

127. Two World Wars within one generation, with the consequent social upheaval, have focussed attention upon the need for an adequate preparation of our young people for the responsibilities of citizenship. In no form of society are these responsibilities so great and so difficult to define as in a democracy. The term "citizen" connotes an individual as an individual, as a member of a family, and as a member of a local, national, and international community. Active democratic citizenship requires a consciousness

of personal independence and social interdependence, a high degree of understanding of, and tolerant co-operation in, public life, and the maintenance of high standards of conduct in private and public affairs.

128. Our democratic way of life is characterized by a respect for personal freedom, a regard for the authority of law, and acceptance of the supremacy, in its proper sphere, of a government elected by secret ballot under universal adult suffrage. The following statement of the characteristics of a good citizen will meet with general acceptance:

The good citizen must, for instance, possess a love of truth and a trained knowledge of how to seek it; he must believe in reason and know how to think clearly and to recognise prejudice. He must be a sufficiently good judge of values to choose with wisdom and courage those who shall represent him in Parliament, in local government and on committees. He must be willing and competent to act in support of the democratic way of life in which he believes. Above all, he must have a deep concern for human personality and for the establishment and maintenance of conditions that make the good life available for all.¹

Most people will also agree with the following purposes of training for citizenship, expressed in a report of the Advisory Council on Education in Scotland:

- (1) to become good husbands and wives and fathers and mothers;
- (2) to develop the spirit of responsibility and of tolerant co-operation with their fellows in work or leisure activities;
- (3) to take an intelligent and independent part in the affairs of the community, both local and national;
- (4) to have a sense of membership of the world community.²

129. Recognition of the problem, however, and agreement as to aims have not provided an immediate solution. That the status of education for citizenship is receiving increasing attention is evident in the reports of the English consultative committee. Spens, for example, with reference to this topic, states:

The importance of the problem has been emphasised in recent years from many quarters. It is scarcely possible to exaggerate that importance, and it is not too much to say that all teaching should contribute to this end. On the extent to which the youth of this country can be fitted to fulfil later their duties, and to take advantage of their opportunities, as citizens of a democratic State may well turn the whole future of democracy . . .³

Also generally recognized is a need for a type of education which, in terms of citizenship, will yield the results desired. More and more, it is insisted that the school should assume the major responsibility for providing the kind of education which will prepare children to play their parts in a demo-

¹*Citizens Growing Up at Home, in School and After*, Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 16, London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1949, p. 19.

²*Training for Citizenship*, Report of the Advisory Council on Education in Scotland, Edinburgh: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1944, p. 4.

³Will Spens, *Report of the Consultative Committee on Secondary Education*, London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1939, p. xxxvii.

cratic society. On the other hand, patterns of behaviour which are based upon Christian ideals, and are acceptable to society, can be realized only through the co-operative efforts of the home, the school, and the church. The participation of home and school associations in this task and the teaching of religious education in public elementary schools are evidences of a willingness to join forces for the common good. This is most heartening; a philosophy of democracy cannot be imposed on the people; it must grow in, and develop from, them. Our only hope of an adequate training for citizenship lies in education. But there must be unity of purpose and agreement as to ideals; confusion will inevitably result if the standards of conduct set for school life are not accepted and practised in the home and in daily life, including that of business and industry.

130. Training for citizenship begins in the home; the atmosphere of the home and the standards of the family largely shape the child as a citizen. Society, through the school and other means, can but supplement the efforts of the home. But the beliefs and values held by parents are partly determined by those generally accepted in the society of which they form a part. And, as is generally recognized, the ideas and ideals from which our standards of conduct are derived find their origin in religion. A spiritual faith based on absolute values is the rock upon which character and conduct are built. For a society based upon Christianity, the ideal society and the ideal citizen are portrayed in the teachings and life of Jesus. Thence we derive the spiritual foundation for our homes, schools, and society; and this fact provides a challenge to our churches to arrest the decline in our Christian beliefs and Christian way of life, and thereby to assist, as only they can, in the common task of educating our youth for citizenship in a Christian democracy.

131. But education in the home, in the church, and in the community is not within the terms of our remit; our task, however, includes the consideration of ways and means whereby education in schools may contribute to training for citizenship. Education of our youth at the expense of the public in provincially controlled schools can be justified only on the ground that it materially improves the quality of citizenship. To devise ways and means of providing training for better citizenship has been an aim in all our discussions. This is shown in our recommendations for the reorganization of the stages of the educational system; in our insistence upon the need for a long period of compulsory school attendance; in our emphasis upon the importance of the professional preparation of teachers; and in our expressed desire to have the advantages of a sound cultural background made available to all children.

132. There is general agreement in regard to the goals to be attained in training for citizenship. If our way of life is to survive, we must inculcate in our children an indelible and pervading faith in democracy. To participate in the life of the community effectively and with understanding,

they must obtain knowledge. Coupled with this must be the development of high ideals of private and public life and of initiative, so that, of their own volition, they will recognize, accept, and discharge their responsibilities for the common weal.

133. As to the means to be used in school to realize our aims, there is lack of unanimity. Some firmly believe in stern and strict discipline, rigorous regimentation, and unending drill in a course of instruction in civics. It is true that discipline and a knowledge of civics are essential, but, if carried to extremes, such methods might well result in the training of robots, submissive to the lash of a dictator's whip. On the other hand, lack of control and unlimited freedom will just as surely produce selfish and self-willed individuals recognizing no authority, incapable of co-operation, and devoid of self-discipline. To accept either extreme will lead but to disaster.

134. Fortunately, experiment and experience point to a solution. In training for citizenship, instruction is important, but practice is the main thing. Thus, children must be instructed in ideals and types of behaviour, but, above all, must live in situations in which these are practised. Education for citizenship is a general aim of education not to be realized within the relatively narrow bounds of any individual subject of instruction. It has to do with imparting information, but, even more, it has to do with the development of social habits and skills, neighbourly attitudes, human understanding, and spiritual ideals. Courses of study, methods of teaching, and modes of management must make their contributions; but education for citizenship is an ideal which must permeate the whole educational programme. It is a cumulative product of the entire school life, and the necessary behaviour patterns can be developed only when ample opportunity is provided for adequate practice.

135. Good citizenship is more likely to be achieved when there is full recognition of the importance of adapting activities and learning to the level of the learners. This is of prime importance. The school is not only a community; it is composed of many communities forming an entity that is, in turn, part of a larger community. There is need for further experimentation to determine what constitutes good citizenship at each level of child development. It is our conviction that if ways and means are perfected to make possible the attainment of good citizenship at each level of the school programme the graduates will be good citizens and assume their full responsibilities at the adult level. The converse is also true. If the learning of concepts is imposed at too early a stage, and if, in our desire to assure good citizenship, particularly in the political field, we attempt to force growth in the immature, only harm can result.

136. Control and freedom must follow a natural and orderly plan of development. Freedom must be given gradually, under guidance; only when the proper use of freedom has been learned, can we trust the graduates of the schools with the full freedom they will enjoy in a democracy.

To give children freedom before they are ready for it causes confusion and may lead to a warping of development: to withhold from them freedom which they have earned is to retard development. To strike a proper balance must ever be the goal. Pupils must learn that freedom is not the right to do as they please; this is licence, which leads to anarchy. True freedom is freedom under law, which carries with it corresponding obligations.

137. In the final analysis, the responsibility for education for citizenship in the individual school rests with the teacher; his personality, his methods of teaching, indeed his way of life, will exert a powerful influence. Where a teacher expresses worthy ideals in his discipline and management and provides for school activities which will develop those attributes of character which are held in high regard, a good beginning is assured. Where, in addition, friendly and mutually helpful relations exist among home, school, and church, an environment will be established which will aid immeasurably in the training of better citizens.

138. Much might also be achieved by a new emphasis upon certain aspects of the work of the school. Our ideals are patent; what is required is reasonable proof, following experimentation, that certain procedures are effective and might be applied in the schools of the province with some assurance of success. It is with this in mind that we commend the experimental work in citizenship begun by the local education authorities in Kirkland Lake, Welland, and Fort Erie, under the direction of the Department of Education. Although insufficient time has elapsed for the results to be assessed, yet in such endeavours lies the best hope of devising courses of studies, activities, and teaching methods adequate to achieve good citizenship.

139. A thorough study should be made in order to determine what activities of school life are most useful in the development of desirable behaviour patterns. Ideals, however worthy, must be expressed if they are to yield habitual modes of action. It is in this aspect of citizenship training that there is the greatest need for experiment. All activities should be regarded as potential opportunities for training in citizenship. New activities within and without the school should be planned in such a way as to afford opportunity for pupils to assume responsibilities and to work in harmony with others. There are many ways in which student participation in democratic processes can be encouraged. The student council, representing some measure of student self-government, the clubs and other co-curricular activities largely under student sponsorship and control, the school assembly, and community enterprises, all offer opportunities which should be utilized.

Contribution of School Subjects

140. The inculcation of worthy ideals should begin as soon as the child enrolls in school and should be continued with increasing emphasis. Almost

every subject of study can be taught so as to make a worthwhile contribution to citizenship training. But English, social studies, and religious education, which will be obligatory in the reorganized curriculum, are especially valuable for the promotion of such ideals.

(1) *Religious Education*

141. The moral and spiritual lessons of the Scriptures should deeply influence the conduct and behaviour of children in their daily lives. But their effect will be lost unless their applications to daily life are skilfully and effectively made, with full sincerity and faith on the part of the instructor. As in no other subject, the emphasis in teaching can be placed upon conscience, service to others, and responsibility.

142. Corporate worship affords both direct and indirect opportunities for training in citizenship. The former arise through pupils conducting part of the service, and through celebration of special days of observance. The latter arise from the moral and spiritual values of worship, the sense of fellowship, the experience of silence and quiet prayer. Corporate worship in school assembly, in church, or in chapel has a deep and abiding significance for most children; the emotional fervour and faith so engendered are the springs from which well the moral and spiritual values upon which conduct and behaviour depend.

(2) *English*

143. Training in the understanding and use of English must be a prime purpose of education. To fall short of an acceptable standard in this field is to remain uneducated. To achieve such a standard is a prerequisite for all intellectual progress. Without it, instruction in other subjects of the curriculum, where English is used to express thoughts and comprehend ideas, must inevitably fail. For any pupil in our schools to be less than fully articulate in English means the retarding or halting of his development to some extent. From the point of view of the development of the whole child, competency in the understanding and use of English must come first.

144. From the point of view of the community, it is our opinion that democracy itself cannot survive in an illiterate or semi-literate population. Democracy needs a high general level of ability to understand and use language, coupled with a critical awareness of the possibility of misuse in what is written or spoken by others. With children the spoken word must be given precedence over the written. The former comes first in the development of each child. It looms large in his daily life, and in the main determines his social acceptance and adequacy. Not that the use and understanding of the written word should be neglected in education; we dare not do this in these days when propaganda and demagoguery are rendered immeasurably more dangerous through a flood of newspapers, pamphlets, and books, fervently pleading special causes on behalf of special interests.

145. We have been disquieted by the common complaint that the graduates of our schools have often failed to attain an acceptable standard in English. University and secondary school teachers complain that their students are unable to express ideas, either orally or in writing, in lucid, accurate, and fluent English. The criticism is echoed by employers, who complain bitterly that young persons make errors in spelling, punctuation, and grammar and cannot express themselves logically and clearly in speaking, even in the idiom of debased English that they commonly employ.

146. With this contention we cannot fully agree. Similar wails have been voiced for at least a century. Nevertheless, the truth of much of the criticism is admitted by teachers of English, who are themselves dissatisfied with the present situation. In Brief 114, entitled *Teaching of English and History*, submitted by the English and History Association of the Province of Ontario, it is stated:

Teacher training colleges, universities, educationalists, and even business men deplore the inability of our young people to express themselves accurately. We feel that the criticism is justified, but that the teachers are not to blame inasmuch as they have large classes and insufficient time for the correction of written work.

In Brief 31, entitled *Speech Training*, submitted by the Toronto District Association of Teachers of Speech, another aspect of this same problem is stressed:

The low standard in spoken English of the graduate of our school system is the evidence of the need of such training to overcome unpleasant, slovenly, unintelligible speech . . . One of the barriers which creates the isolation of the so-called 'under-privileged classes' is poor speech. It is the responsibility of a democratic society to so train its future citizens that this artificial barrier is removed. Many potential leaders are either inarticulate or inhibited through a lack of confidence in their ability to speak effectively. Such conditions constitute a serious loss to society and should be prevented by a progressive educational policy.

We readily admit that we do not have the necessary training, experience, or ability to propose an acceptable solution for this problem. But we have reached certain definite conclusions on the matter and have framed some suggestions which we feel may be helpful.

147. One obvious fault, it seems to us, lies in the treatment of English as merely another subject on the curriculum. It is not just another subject. The correct understanding and use of English is a challenge to every teacher—in every class, in every subject, and in all co-curricular activities. While we see no acceptable alternative mode of organization, yet we must point out the inherent danger of having a department of English and specialist teachers of the subject. It is easy for others members of the staff to assume the attitude that the responsibility for "English" rests solely with the specialist teachers. This seems to be a rather common point of view, particularly in the upper grades of the present secondary schools. Perhaps it accounts for the fact that many teachers apparently pay little

attention to standards of oral and written English in a student's work in fields other than language. Some teachers are seemingly unconscious of the fact that their personal standards in oral and written English are unsatisfactory, a fact which was apparent in evidence presented to us and in classrooms which we visited. If the teacher habitually makes errors in grammar and fails to set an example of accurate and fluent use of English, can it be expected that pupils will do otherwise? There is need here for definite improvement: every teacher should maintain high standards in the use of English, for himself and for his pupils, in all subjects; and teacher training schools should take vigorous action to ensure that their graduates are highly proficient in English, both oral and written.

148. In defence of the school it is frequently maintained that the standards of English usage in the home and in the community in general are relatively low. This is true. A surprisingly large proportion of our population has remained functionally illiterate despite compulsory school attendance laws and free public education. The English used in some homes, in many films, in some books and magazines, and in the "funnies", is atrocious. Hence, the schools must prepare to wage a protracted and exhausting battle; but it is only in the schools, and through education, that the fight for good English can be won.

149. There are numerous opportunities in the school programme for the teacher to stress the use of correct English and for the student to develop fluency of expression. Attention need only be drawn to a few to illustrate the point: talks by pupils, debates, dramatics, questions and answers, group discussions and committees, and written compositions and school exercises. The opportunities will be innumerable if English is emphasized in all subjects and by every teacher. Through a study of great English literature, students will learn to appreciate the high standards, the inventiveness, and the creative faculties of the masters. In this literature is stored centuries of experience and the wisdom of the ages. The student can obtain from it much more than pleasure and recreation; he can obtain comfort, counsel, and enlightenment, as he reaches the age of questioning and of reflection upon the fundamental problems of life; he can obtain an appreciation of our culture and tradition.

150. We mention but briefly the rules and usages of spelling, punctuation, and grammar, though these are not unimportant. Any person who disregards or ignores these conventions creates a most unfavourable impression upon reader or audience. This must be brought forcefully to the attention of the pupil, and he must be set a high standard in his own usage. But the training must be functional and appropriate to the child's stage of language development. Grammar, for example, has great value; but if taught as an isolated subject, as a set of rules to be memorized, little of it may be transferred to oral and written English; if poorly taught, a more barren and profitless course is difficult to imagine.

(3) *Social Studies*

151. The subject of social studies affords an excellent opportunity for training in citizenship. Social studies, an integration of history and geography, elementary economics, civics, and related subjects, has aims very different from those of the courses in history and geography in earlier years. Even in junior grades, the course in history was formerly arranged chronologically, divided into periods, and often not presented in such a way as to give a comprehensive view of history. In geography, detailed facts—capes, bays, lakes and rivers, capitals, commodities, climate—often relating to countries of which the child could have no knowledge and in which he could have no interest, were methodically memorized. This practice has been changed because it has been demonstrated that younger children have little appreciation of what lies beyond the here and now. The study of history and geography must await development in the child of a sense of time and space. Until the child is ready, the facts with their effects and causes fail to take on life, and lie inert.

152. The present practice in social studies is to begin with a relatively simple course having limited aims. In the earlier years in elementary schools, study is restricted to the everyday activities of the home and local community. As the child becomes more mature, while the aims do not greatly change, the horizons are gradually expanded in space and time. The aims finally include: to help the child to understand something of the world in which he lives; to develop proper attitudes toward other people; to gain knowledge of his own country; and, later, to extend his knowledge of, and interest in, life in other lands.

153. Through social studies, the pupil should gain some conception of the complex factors that influence human conduct. The programme, therefore, should help him to discover his place and to assume his responsibilities in society. Man's story in any age or in any place is a legitimate field for investigation, provided it has significance for the life of today. Rules of conduct set down in the Ten Commandments or certain concepts expressed by Plato are "new" since they are applicable to modern society. The aim, therefore, should be to select those experiences and influences that have been most significant in determining man's successes and failures. Those which most closely relate to our own background should receive special emphasis. We cannot properly understand the Canadian way of life without a study of the cultures brought from many lands, in particular from the British Isles and France. A study of the immediate and pressing problems of society is also desirable. Pupils should become aware of the magnitude and complexity of these problems and, at the appropriate stage of their development, be guided to a recognition of their own responsibility in relation to them.

154. The division of human life and relations into history and geography in the school curriculum has always been artificial. They are but two

aspects of the story of man: geography is concerned with man at present and includes, in its wider sense, economic and social history; history likewise, to be meaningful, must include a study of geography. The better teachers have long recognized this truth and, in effect, have taught "social studies", whether the subject was labelled history or geography. Today, owing partly to a much deeper understanding of child development, the essential unity of history and geography is formally recognized and expressed in both the content of the courses and the methods by which social studies is taught.

155. In the light of our present knowledge, it is easy to see why the study of civics has been such a dreary and wearisome task for pupil and teacher alike. The learning and recitation of divisions of government and of their powers, duties, and responsibilities were without meaning to the young child. The formal teaching of civics is important only when the student is ready for it. The subject can profitably be introduced, in our opinion, in the final years of the new secondary school. At this point it is essential for the student to have a coherent outline of social and political organization together with some knowledge of international affairs.

156. The proposed new stages of the educational system afford many special opportunities for training for citizenship through social studies. In the nursery school and kindergarten the child learns to associate, and in a very limited way to co-operate, with his fellows. Through the experience of satisfaction from the approbation of others, and of dissatisfaction from their disapproval, he begins to respect the personal and property rights of his fellows, to accept the superior position of the teacher, and to conform to school routines and procedures.

157. In the junior division of the elementary school this process continues, so that by the time the child is 8 or 9 years of age he will have become fairly well accustomed to life in the school community, though far from accomplished in its finer arts. Even at this tender age he may be initiated into the citizenship of the neighbourhood community through the development of specific habits, such as obeying traffic signals and respecting the property of neighbours. Similarly, he gains an appreciation of the function of policemen, firemen, postmen, and others who directly serve the community; and of the builders, merchants, farmers, physicians, and others who serve indirectly. Through these activities, and through excursions, he also garners an incidental fund of geographical information about his immediate neighbourhood. In the senior division of the elementary school he may acquire a wider acquaintance with community living through various studies, such as the exchange of labour and its products, the use of money, and the interdependence of rural and urban communities. The scope of these studies may be gradually extended to include the whole of Canada. His knowledge of geography is also extended, even beyond Canada itself. Concurrently, in each year there may be introduced stories of people in

other lands, to give a glimpse of the kinship of peoples throughout the world with the consequent inculcation of feelings of sympathy and friendliness. Patterns of social living and a love of native land may be fostered through a study of biographies, especially of Canadians who have rendered special service to their country, and through participation in patriotic ceremonies and celebrations. Through brief studies of long ranges of history, under such topics as "How Men Build Homes", and "How Men Travel", the pupils may gain knowledge of certain elementary principles of social living, such as the division of labour, and the interdependence of all members of a society.

158. As we noted earlier, ideals of social behaviour tend to develop vigorously during the period of adolescence. In the new secondary school, therefore, the acquisition of information for the purpose of making sound judgments on social problems becomes of major importance. In the first two years of his secondary school course the pupil may study the geography of Canada and, to a lesser extent, of the Commonwealth. In the final two years he may learn about the geography of the world. The point of view will be that of a special interest in the customs and daily lives of the inhabitants, the natural resources and facilities for production and manufacture, and the trade requirements and facilities for conducting trade. He may also begin a study of the election, organization, and function of local school boards and local municipal councils. In the final two years he may profitably add the mechanics of government in the province, in the Dominion, and in the Commonwealth, provided that the treatment is not too elaborate or too profound.

159. During the secondary school stage, history should be studied partly for the purpose of developing a patriotic attitude, partly for the purpose of providing a factual approach to the understanding of modern conditions and the solution of modern problems, and very little for the purpose of amassing a mere fund of historical information. Accordingly, there will be opportunities to foster ideals of citizenship through a comparative, as well as a particular, study of biographic history and of social movements in history. In the first two years the story of national and social growth in Canada may be presented through such topics as "Explorations", "The Building of Canada", etc., in the treatment of which the biographical aspects should be stressed. In the last two years of the secondary school the study of political movements in Canada, in the Commonwealth, and in other countries, may be undertaken in conjunction with an examination of the mechanics of government under such topics as "How the Canadian People Gained Government by Law". A further appreciation of certain fundamental principles in the growth of civilization may be gained through the continued long-range study of history. By somewhat the same method, definitions of primary concepts in economy and sociology, such as wealth, money, capital, labour, wages, interest, and profit, may be evolved.

160. The main lines of growth in the development of social skills and attitudes will have been fairly well established by the time the student completes the new secondary school programme. But these skills and attitudes can be much more highly refined. Further education should include simplified courses in sociology and economics, based upon a study of world history and world geography, to the end that the principles and laws which govern and determine social organization may be induced. Attention may be paid also to the social implications of the vocation chosen; the relations and functions of labour, management, and capital; and the interdependence of all forms of labour.

(4) Other School Subjects

161. We need do no more than suggest the special opportunities available in other subjects of the curriculum for training for citizenship. Through a study of foreign languages the student gains an understanding of other people and of their culture and traditions, as well as a knowledge of their geography and history. From a study of mathematics the student should learn to appreciate the nature of proof, logical structure, and deductive reasoning, and obtain training in the fundamentals of business transactions. In the teaching of science the aim should be to assist the student to understand the nature and organization of the physical environment, in order that he may come to realize man's place in it. In agricultural science the student will develop an understanding of the interdependence of rural and urban life and of the relationship of agriculture to human welfare and national well-being. Music, art, and crafts will be among the major media for the expression of feeling and imagination and for the cultivation of taste. Vocational subjects will give the future citizen his first introduction to the world of work in which his living will be made.

162. Finally, the individual's contribution as a citizen will be limited unless he is physically and mentally healthy. In physical and health education the aim should be to promote a realization of the individual's responsibility for his own physical fitness, to develop efficiency of body movement in the activities of everyday life, and to encourage varied recreational activities, particularly those that can be continued in leisure time. The development of habits and attitudes conducive to healthful living will be included, as well as a sufficient knowledge of the body to explain the need for the formation of these habits. As in other subjects, good citizenship may be fostered through situations that arise in physical and health education. The social qualities which may there be developed include leadership, co-operation, loyalty, courage, sportsmanship, and honesty. They are also encouraged in our proposed programme of cadet training for boys and the equivalent programme for girls. In this connection we should have liked to discuss national service, on which we have received recommendations, and on which we have very definite views; but this is a matter of

national defence and national concern and is therefore not within our terms of reference as a provincial Commission.

Contribution of Other Phases of the School Programme¹

163. Pupils in the elementary school may develop proficiency in the art of democratic citizenship through direct practice in assuming simple responsibilities in the school, by participating in clubs that have an easily understood organization, and through taking part in supervised sports and organized out-of-school activities, such as Cubs and Brownies. In the new secondary schools, social skills may be fostered through participation in school sports and other co-curricular activities, in cadet training, and in out-of-school organizations such as Boy Scouts and Girl Guides. Much practical knowledge and experience may be gained also through student clubs and student government. In the final two years of secondary school and in junior college, student groups should be given greater freedom in planning and executing particular school functions and should have real responsibility for the way in which these are carried out.

HOURS OF STUDY

School Terms and Holidays

164. The division of the school year into terms, the dates for opening and closing school, and school holidays, are specified in the various school Acts. The following excerpt from *The Public Schools Act* is typical:

6.—(1) The school year shall consist of two terms, the first of which shall begin on the first Tuesday of September following Labour Day and shall end on the 22nd day of December, and the second of which shall begin on the 3rd day of January and end on the 29th day of June. R.S.O. 1937, c.357, s.6(1); 1938, c.35, s.28(1).

(2) When the 3rd day of January is a Friday, the schools shall not be opened until the following Monday, and when the 29th day of June or the 22nd day of December is a Monday, the schools shall be closed on the preceding Friday. R.S.O. 1937, c.357, s.6(2); 1938, c.35, s.28(2).

(3) Every Saturday, every public holiday, the 24th day of May, the 11th day of November, the day appointed annually to be celebrated officially as the birthday of the reigning sovereign, the week following Easter Day, and every day proclaimed a holiday by the authorities of the municipality in which the teacher is engaged and every day upon which a school is closed under the provisions of *The Public Health Act* or the regulations of the Department, shall be a school holiday. 1944, c.56, s.9.

(4) With the approval of the inspector, the board of a rural school section may substitute holidays in some other part of the year for part of the time herein allowed for Easter and midsummer vacations to suit the convenience of pupils and teachers, provided always that the same number of holidays be allowed in each year.

(5) When there is no county organization the inspector, subject to an appeal to the Minister, may determine the length of time, which shall not be less than

¹See also page 141.

six months, during which a school shall be kept open each year, and it shall be the duty of the board to keep the school open during the whole of the time so determined. R.S.O. 1937, c.357, s.6(4-5).

165. The present provisions appear to us to be satisfactory, and accordingly we recommend

that the present statutory requirements in regard to school terms, the dates for opening and closing school, and school holidays, be continued and be specified in the proposed Education Act.

Interruptions of the School Programme

166. We have noted that an increasing number of requests are submitted each year by outside agencies for assistance in projects which involve an interruption of the regular school programme for some or all students. Undoubtedly, many such requests had their origin during war years. But, while recognizing the worthy aims of such agencies, the advantages to students of the incidental training provided, and the importance of the assistance of students in a national emergency, we can see no justification for such interruptions of the school programme in normal times. Particularly in view of the condensed and intensified courses which are contemplated and of the specialization in junior college, we are of opinion that all available time should be devoted to school work. Accordingly we recommend

that, except in the event of a national emergency, the full school day be devoted to the activities of the regular school programme.

167. There is another practice which should not be condoned by the Department of Education. In the present secondary schools, students in lower forms are allowed, each year, to discontinue attendance at classes before the end of the second term while senior students are writing final examinations. For many students the result is a shortening of the school year by several weeks. This is an action which, whatever the circumstances, must be deplored. Accordingly we recommend

that the dates for opening and closing school as specified in the Acts apply to all students, and that administrative provisions be made to permit attendance for the full period.

Daily Sessions

168. The number of hours for each daily school session is specified in the regulations; for example, for high schools and collegiate institutes¹ it is specified:

8—(1) Pupils shall assemble for study each school-day at 9 a.m. and be dismissed not later than 4 p.m.

(2) The board may authorize morning, noon and afternoon recesses but the number of school hours shall be not less than 5 hours a day including morning and afternoon recesses.

¹O. Reg. 252/48.

For the new elementary schools the present provision¹ requiring "5 hours of study a day including the recesses in the morning and afternoon" should be adequate. In the new secondary schools and junior colleges, however, where the school programme will be intensified, there would appear to be justification for lengthening the school day. But we are not unmindful of the additional burden imposed upon students in the form of homework. At present, except in elementary schools,² the amount of extra work so assigned to students is left to the discretion of the teacher, subject to review by the principal of the school. Cases are not unknown where too heavy a burden of homework has been placed upon conscientious students. If the length of the school day is increased, there should be provision in the timetable for study periods and a consequent decrease in the amount of homework.

169. We recommend

- (a) *that the number of school hours for each daily session continue to be specified in the regulations;*
- (b) *that the present regulations, O. Reg. 95/47, 21 (1), (2), (3), be continued for the new elementary schools;*
- (c) *that the number of hours for each daily session be increased to five and one-half in the new secondary schools and to six in junior colleges;*
- (d) (i) *that, as a general practice, no homework be assigned to pupils in the new elementary schools;*
- (ii) *that constant care be exercised to ensure that the amount of homework assigned to students in secondary schools and junior colleges is not excessive;*
- (iii) *that the principal of a school be required to exercise control over the amount of homework assigned by members of his staff; and that provision be made by the principal of a secondary school or junior college for daily study periods for students, within school hours, under the supervision of members of the teaching staff of the school.*

USE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN INSTRUCTION AND COMMUNICATION IN PUBLICLY SUPPORTED SCHOOLS³

170. Generally speaking, in the elementary schools of the province English is the only language used in instruction and communication. In certain public and separate schools, however, French may be introduced "as a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister of Education." *The Public Schools Act* makes it clear that, except under specified conditions,

¹O. Reg. 95/47, 21(3).

²O. Reg. 95/47, 8(5).

³For a discussion of French as a subject of study and language of instruction and communication in public and separate schools, see Chapters XVI and XVII.

English is to be the language of instruction and communication in all public school classrooms. The relevant section is 103 (b) which states:

It shall be the duty of every teacher,—

- (b) to use the English language in instruction and in all communications with the pupils in regard to discipline and the management of the school, except where it is impracticable to do so by reason of the pupil not understanding English, but recitations requiring the use of a text-book may be conducted in the language of the text-book;

No such provision is included in *The Separate Schools Act* or in regulations made thereunder.

171. Nor is there any reference in Acts or regulations of the Department of Education regarding the language of instruction and communication for high schools, collegiate institutes, continuation schools, and vocational schools. Presumably it is assumed that English is to be the language of instruction and communication in these schools, except during the classroom periods when languages other than English are being taught as subjects of the regular programme. This, at any rate, is the practice.

172. That the Ontario Legislature has the power to regulate the language to be used in instruction and communication in publicly supported schools has been determined by the Privy Council. In the case of *Mackell vs. Ottawa Separate School Trustees*, 1917, Appeal Cases, page 62 *et seq.*, their Lordships stated:

The schools must be conducted in accordance with the regulations, and their Lordships can find nothing in the Statute to take away from the authority that had power to issue regulations the power of directing in what language education is to be given.

173. In our opinion, policy with respect to the use of the English language in instruction and communication in publicly supported schools of the province should be established by the Legislative Assembly, and appropriate sections should be incorporated in the statutes. We therefore recommend

that provision be made in the Acts of the Department of Education with respect to the use of English as the language of instruction and communication in all publicly supported schools.

174. As a general requirement governing the language to be used in all elementary schools, public and separate, we recommend

*that, in public and separate elementary schools, English be the language used in instruction and in communication with pupils in regard to discipline and the management of the school, except where it is impracticable to do so by reason of the pupil not understanding English, or where, in accordance with the regulations, French may be used.*¹

¹See Chapter XVII.

175. Upon entering secondary school, children will have attained a sufficient mastery of the English language to make possible the use of English in all instruction and communication. Where instruction in languages other than English is given, the language being taught may be used as a medium of instruction during the class periods concerned. Accordingly we recommend

that in publicly supported post-elementary schools—secondary schools, junior colleges, and other institutions at the level of further education¹—English be the sole language of instruction and of communication with pupils in regard to the discipline and management of the school, except that instruction in languages other than English may be conducted in the language being taught during the class periods concerned.

176. Special regulations should be drafted to govern the use of English in correspondence courses under the jurisdiction of the Department of Education. We recommend

that, in correspondence courses conducted by the Department of Education, English be the language of instruction and communication with pupils, except where it is impracticable to do so by reason of the pupil not understanding English, or where, in accordance with the regulations, French may be used.²

¹With the exception of the programme for training teachers for elementary schools in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication. See Chapter XVII.

²See Chapter XVII.

CHAPTER VII

CENTRALIZATION AND DECENTRALIZATION IN ADMINISTRATION

1. Much has been written about the centralization and decentralization of educational administration. Although at first sight it may seem that the subject is academic in nature, and that little time should be devoted to it, we have found that it is of fundamental importance in relation to recommendations on the educational system of Ontario.

2. National systems of education may be classified as centralized or decentralized. There are, however, two quite distinct concepts regarding centralization and decentralization. One takes into account only whether responsibility for education rests with the people of the nation as a whole or with the people of the states, provinces, or other subdivisions of the nation. According to this classification, France, New Zealand, and the Scandinavian countries have centralized educational systems because the legislative authority in educational matters is national rather than provincial. The other concept takes into account only the method by which education is administered; it is not concerned with which government has responsibility for education but with whether, and how, the government which does have the responsibility delegates its administrative powers to subordinate authorities. According to the first classification, Canada has a decentralized educational system; responsibility for education was assigned to the provinces by the *British North America Act*. But this leaves the question of the extent of centralization within each province; and with reference to Ontario, it is this question which we discuss in the paragraphs below.

3. Under a system of complete centralization of educational administration, the government responsible would provide school buildings; it would train, certificate, appoint, and pay teachers, supervisors, and other educational personnel; it would determine curricula and all matters of school administration; and it would pay the full cost of education. The entire educational system under such a plan would be operated by a staff of professional educators responsible to the government, and laymen would exercise control only through the Legislature. Under a system of complete

decentralization, on the other hand, the central authority would have no jurisdiction over educational matters. Education would be a responsibility of local municipalities or of parents, without financial aid or guidance from the central authority, and the role of the educational expert would be greatly limited. There is probably no educational system which can properly be described as completely centralized or completely decentralized. It is common practice, however, to classify an educational system as decentralized where control over an appreciable number of those items usually classed as *interna*¹ is in the hands of local authorities, and to classify as centralized a system in which control over few, if any, of such items is delegated to other than central authorities.

4. In any country the system of educational administration is usually similar to the general system of government.² Indeed, different systems of government seem to require different systems of educational administration. A completely centralized educational administration is necessary to achieve totalitarian aims and ideals, whereas the preservation of democratic principles requires a decentralized system.

5. Germany and Russia, which traditionally had decentralized systems of government, found it necessary under totalitarian regimes to centralize all types of administration under the control of the central authority. In Nazi Germany all educational officials formed a pyramid, with the Minister of Education as the apex. No person or agency outside this hierarchical pyramid was permitted to influence the theory or practice of education. Local education authorities were replaced by local education committees, but these were merely consultative bodies completely subservient to the government (Party) representative at every level. In the Soviet Union, while in theory the educational system continues to be decentralized, recently there has been evidence of increasing centralized control, in this case through the Party rather than through civil administrative organizations. This same centralizing tendency is appearing in Eastern European countries such as Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, and Hungary, which have come under totalitarian control.

6. Influences other than tradition or politics have operated in some relatively "new" democratic countries. In those with sparse population and great distances, such as Australia, New Zealand, and the Union of South Africa, it was often necessary for the State to inaugurate the educational system. The tendency has been to continue state control, although in Australia and New Zealand there has been a realization of the danger to democracy of a too highly centralized system and considerable decentralization has been recommended. In the states of the United States and the

¹See below, paragraph 9.

²See N. Hans, "Comparative Study of European Education", in *Year Book of Education*, 1936.

provinces of Canada, however, although in most instances the educational system was initiated by the central authority, there was, during the latter part of the eighteenth and the first half of the nineteenth centuries, a marked trend toward decentralization. In the United States a tendency in the opposite direction began about 1850; it was encouraged by difficulties which arose from the smallness of local units of administration and from the growing numbers and complexity of the duties of the local boards. Leading educationists in the United States feel that this trend must be reversed. In any case, the administration of education is still, in most of the individual states, highly decentralized.

7. Writers such as Sir Fred Clarke, Sir Percy Nunn, Professor Hocking of Harvard, and Professor Kandel of Columbia have enunciated a philosophical basis for the highly decentralized systems of educational administration in Great Britain and the United States. The aim of education in a democracy, they say, must be two-fold: firstly, to produce the type of citizen found desirable by the society concerned; and secondly, to provide for growth beyond the type, this being the only way in which a democratic society can grow. The totalitarian theory of education is based on the first of these aims only, considering growth beyond the type as a monstrosity to be liquidated. As a result of their appraisal of the educational situation, the English have confirmed and strengthened, through the Education Act of 1944, a system whereby local authorities are given major control of the administration of education.

CENTRALIZATION AND DECENTRALIZATION IN ONTARIO

8. Ontario does not have a decentralized educational administration in the same sense as have England and most of the states of the United States. On the other hand, it does not have complete centralization of administration such as is found in Australia. In our province certain aspects of educational administration are completely centralized and others highly decentralized.

9. It is customary to classify various aspects of education into two categories, *externa* and *interna*. The former include those which "make it possible to bring the right pupil to the right school under the right teacher",¹ which, in short, ensure that equity of opportunity which democratic systems of education seek to provide. These aspects include: compulsory attendance; length of school year; character of buildings and play-grounds from the educational and hygienic standpoints; medical inspection and health; size of classes; qualifications, training, salaries, and pensions of teachers; provision of a co-ordinated system of schools;² and

¹I. L. Kandel, *Comparative Education*, Cambridge, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin, 1933, p. 214.

²For Ontario this means a system of schools under the jurisdiction of the Department of Education whereby a pupil is enabled to advance within the publicly supported system of education by successive stages to his ultimate educational goal, without hindrance from artificial administrative barriers.

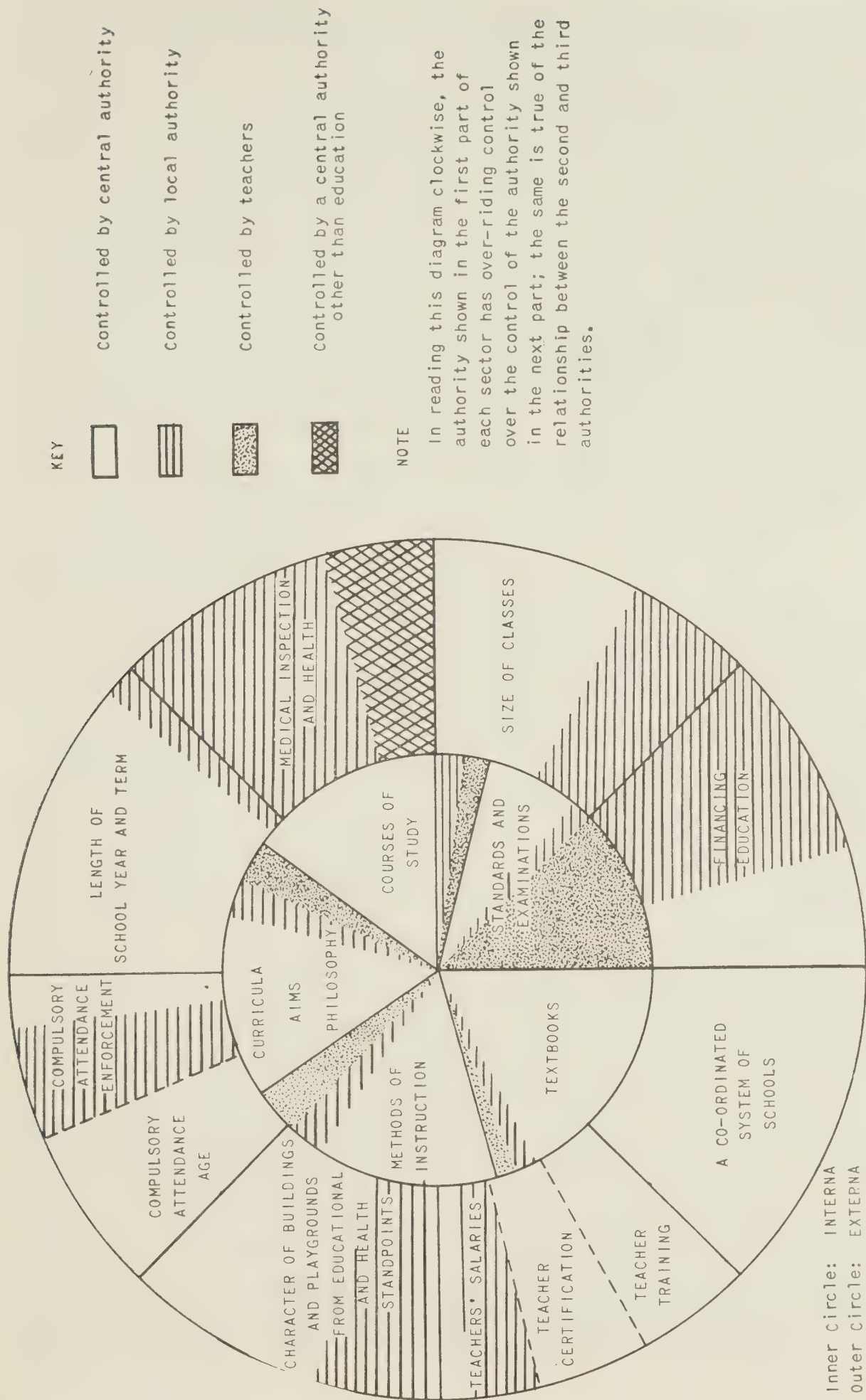


FIG. 1. CONTROL OF INTERNA AND EXTERNA OF EDUCATION IN ONTARIO

financing of the school programme. Those classed as *interna* include: curricula; courses of study; methods of instruction; textbooks; standards; and evaluation of pupil progress.

10. A diagrammatical representation of the existing situation in Ontario with respect to control of *interna* and *externa* is given in Figure 1. No attempt has been made to indicate exact percentages since measurement of shared control is impossible. In general, as shown in the diagram, the central authority has the major control of four of the five items classed as *interna*. In the field of standards and examinations a trend toward decentralization has been evident during recent years. At present, the only examination controlled by the central authority is that leading to secondary school honour graduation, which, however, still has a disproportionate influence over other school examinations and standards. With regard to methods of instruction, courses of study, and textbooks, teachers exercise some control through selection of topics from the courses of study prescribed by the central authority, through selection of books from approved lists, and through limited freedom to employ their own methods of instruction. In all these instances, however, ultimate control is vested in the central authority. Such control of *interna* as is possessed by local education authorities is exercised largely through their appointment of teachers and, in cities, of local inspectors of schools.

11. The central authority has major control also in those fields classed as *externa*. The training and certification of teachers are entirely under its control. It determines the length of the school year, school term, and school day, except in a few isolated cases where, owing to geographical and climatic conditions, local authorities are permitted to vary the opening and closing dates of the school year and school term. Determination of the limits of the period of compulsory attendance and responsibility for establishing a co-ordinated system of schools rest entirely with the central authority.

12. However, there are important aspects of educational administration for which the local authority is largely responsible. Within limits prescribed by regulation, the size of classes is determined by the local authority. The extent of medical inspection and of health measures is determined by the local education authority with the co-operation of the municipality and the local board of health. The enforcement of compulsory attendance legislation is almost entirely a function of local authorities. The fixing of salaries and salary scales is a matter for the local authority; the central authority does not specify even a minimum salary for teachers. Local authorities have primary responsibility for the character of buildings and playgrounds but they risk forfeiting provincial grants if they refuse to maintain standards set by the central authority. And responsibility for financing the educational programme rests with local authorities although

financial assistance is provided by the central authority through legislative grants.

13. The Ontario educational system is much more centralized than is commonly supposed, especially in view of the fact that even in those matters over which the local authorities have control their authority must, in many instances, be exercised within limits set by legislation or regulations of the central authority. The power of local education authorities to appoint and pay teachers and to finance the erection of school buildings gives the impression that they have more control over education than they actually possess. It is often forgotten that, although appointed by the local authority, a teacher must be trained and certificated by the Department of Education, and must teach prescribed subjects from an approved list of books by methods subject to the approval of the inspector. Moreover, his pupils must write departmental examinations if they are to secure the Secondary School Honour Graduation Diploma. Centralization has, in fact, increased with the passing of time.

*Development Toward the Centralization of
Educational Administration in Ontario*

14. The educational system in Ontario was initiated by the Legislature, an origin indicative of a centralized system, but the establishment of a school in any particular area was the result of local action. The demands of the people for schools were usually far in advance of legislation. Although the first elementary and secondary schools were established as a result of legislative action, there was no central control over them. From 1808 until 1823 the only evidence of centralized control was the fact that the district public school boards were appointed by the Governor. Each of these boards was a law unto itself; it could hire as a teacher whatever person it desired; and it could follow whatever course of studies it wished. It was not long, however, before a tendency toward centralization appeared. In 1823 a General Board of Education was appointed by the Governor, on the authority of the Government of Great Britain, and the district public schools¹ and the district common schools were placed under its jurisdiction. Even at this early date, one of the earmarks of the centralized system made its appearance: the promotion of uniformity throughout the schools was one of the specific duties imposed on the General Board of Education. Recommendation of textbooks by the central authority made its first appearance at this time.

15. The General Board of Education was abolished in 1833 and its functions were transferred nominally to the Council of King's College. Following this, another period of autonomy ensued for both the district public schools and the common schools. The deadlock between the Legis-

¹"Grammar" schools.

lative Council and the Assembly, which was the prelude to the Rebellion of 1837, resulted in a period of stagnation in educational matters. This can be seen in the report submitted by the Commission appointed to enquire into the state of education in Upper Canada in 1839.

16. When educational legislation was introduced in 1841,¹ it showed the effects of the Rebellion of 1837 and of the union of Upper and Lower Canada. It provided for the appointment of a Superintendent of Education for the United Province of Canada, and assigned duties to him which had the effect of strengthening the control of the central authority. These were briefly:

- (1) To apportion the legislative grant among the several municipal districts and to certify the same to the Receiver General of the province and to the treasurer of each of the districts.
- (2) To pay annual visits to each of the municipal districts of the province.
- (3) To prescribe forms for carrying out the provisions of the Act.
- (4) To make suggestions tending to the establishment of uniformity throughout the common schools of the province.
- (5) To submit an annual report on the condition of common schools and plans for their improvement.

17. Under the Act of 1841, the General Board of Education disappeared and the control over *interna* of education was even more highly decentralized than before. The right to choose texts and to decide on courses of study was delegated to elected township school commissioners, as was the right to determine the qualifications of teachers. The only indication of a tendency toward centralization was a provision requiring the Superintendent to make suggestions for the establishment of uniformity throughout the common schools of the province.

18. But the Act proved to be unworkable, owing to racial and religious differences; and, as part of a general move to legislate separately for education in the eastern and western sections of the new province, the office of Superintendent was abolished in 1843. The school Act of 1843² transferred to the Provincial Secretary the duties formerly assigned to the Superintendent. An assistant superintendent was appointed for each of the two sections of the province. This was the first time in the history of the province that a Minister of the Crown was charged with the direction of educational affairs. It showed that the concept of education as a responsibility of the state was beginning to be accepted. This was a step on the path toward centralization.

19. The real beginning of our relatively highly centralized system of today dates from the Act of 1846.³ The Act gave extensive powers to a

¹ 4 & 5 Vict., Ch. 18, S.P.C., 1841.

² 7 Vict., Ch. 19, Sec. 1, S.P.C.

³ 9 Vict., Ch. 20, S.P.C.

General Board of Education and a new Superintendent of Schools, which were in marked contrast with those formerly possessed by the central authority. This was in accordance with the views of Egerton Ryerson, who was the chief architect of the Act. His chief argument for the change from decentralization to centralization was that it was necessary if the principles of responsible government were to be applied to the administration of education. The following excerpt gives the essence of his argument:

In order that a system of instruction may be Provincial . . . the various parts of it must be made to move in harmony . . . and the whole must be subject to one common direction. This cannot be the case where the different parts are wholly independent of each other—where the County and Township Superintendents, and each Corporation of Trustees, are as independent of the Crown in Canada as they are of that in China . . . As there is one responsibility, so there must be one authority—one mode of appointing to, and removing, from the head of every Department of authority, whether supreme or subordinate—in all localities and gradations of office. This principle of Responsible Government is contravened by the Common School Act of 1843, in the whole system of local superintendency.¹

20. Ryerson realized, however, that the change from almost complete local to central control could not be made in one step:

It would doubtless be more simple and consonant to our system of Government if the District Superintendents were appointed in the same manner [i.e. by the central authority] as all other administrators of the law; but, as a completely opposite system has obtained, so great a change might cause dissatisfaction.²

He was content to work gradually, and the Acts of 1846, 1850, 1853, 1871, 1874, and 1876 represent successive stages in the fulfilment of his aims.

21. In the Act of 1850,³ commonly regarded as the keystone of Ontario's educational system, provision was made for a newly constituted Council of Public Instruction to replace the General Board of Education. Authorities were set up, intermediate between the local school trustees and the Council, known as county boards of public instruction; each of these was composed of grammar school trustees and the county superintendent. They were given some of the powers formerly held by the local and district superintendents, such as the certification of teachers and the selection of textbooks from lists approved by the Council of Public Instruction.

22. Superficially, it might appear that the formation of county boards represented a partial return to decentralization. Actually, the opposite is true. Formerly, the district superintendent, who had performed many of the functions assigned to the new county board, was wholly a local appointee. Under the new Act all but one of the board's members were

¹J. G. Hodgins, *Historical and Other Papers and Documents Illustrative of the Educational System of Ontario*, Vol. III, 1853-1868, Toronto: King's Printer, 1911, pp. 162-163.

²*Ibid.*, p. 164.

³13 & 14 Vict., Ch. 48, S.P.C.

appointed by the central authority. Moreover, with the development of professional training the power of local authorities to certificate untrained teachers became less important. At the same time the Council of Public Instruction narrowed down the list from which selections of textbooks could be made. Thus, when, in 1853, grammar school trustees ceased to be appointed by the Governor and became appointees of county councils, no real diminution of the power of the central authority was made.

23. The Grammar School Act of 1853¹ marked another step in the co-ordination of all types of publicly supported education under the central authority. Although previously grammar school trustees had been appointed by the Governor, they had been practically autonomous. The Act of 1853 provided for trustees appointed by local municipal authorities but brought the grammar schools into the school system and under the control of the Chief Superintendent. The next step in the centralization of the system came with the Act of 1871² which, among other things, provided for the appointment of county "inspectors" instead of superintendents. These officers were still appointed by the county councils, but, since they now had to meet qualifications specified by the central authority, they were brought under closer central control.

24. In 1874, the Council of Public Instruction acquired the power to prescribe courses of study and to appoint secondary school inspectors. At the same time the nature of the central authority was changed; the number of members in the Council was increased from 9 to 18, some of whom were elected. But the attempt to give other than government appointees a direct voice in the control of education was short-lived. It was opposed by Ryerson for personal reasons as well as reasons of principle. He urged the appointment of a Minister of Public Instruction and suggested that the work of the Council of Public Instruction could easily be performed by the executive council on the report of one of its members. This recommendation of Ryerson's was acted upon in 1876,³ when the Executive Council became the Department of Education with a Minister of Education in charge.

25. The last step in the development of centralization was taken in 1930 with the removal from county councils of the right to appoint elementary school inspectors and the vesting of this power in the Department of Education. Since that time there have been but two changes affecting centralization, one indicating a decrease and the other an increase in central control. The former was the withdrawal of the central authority from the examination field, except at the senior matriculation level. The latter was the assumption by the central authority of approximately 50 per cent of the gross approved cost of education.

¹16 Vict., Ch. 186, S.P.C.

²34 Vict., Ch. 33, S.O.

³39 Vict., Ch. 16, S.O.

DECENTRALIZATION AND CENTRALIZATION UNDER OTHER JURISDICTIONS

26. Certain developments in countries which have forms of government similar to our own should be briefly examined in order to obtain a clearer picture of the problems with which we are faced, and to understand the methods by which others have sought to solve them. In seeking to determine our own policy, we should realize that the problem has two related parts. Firstly, which particular items are to be under the direct control of the central authority and which are to be under the control of local authorities? Secondly, in view of the nature of the items to be placed under local control, what is the most suitable and effective type of local authority? To these and other questions we must seek answers through a study of the educational systems of Great Britain, Australia, the United States, and other provinces of Canada.

England and Wales

27. Although it is generally considered that England has a most judicious division of educational powers and duties between the central and local education authorities, her administrative organization is not the result of any carefully formulated plan. It is rather the outgrowth of more than a century of piecemeal legislation resulting from numerous Royal Commissions and other studies of current educational problems. Such legislation has represented, in almost every instance, a compromise between the extreme views of those who favoured complete denominational control of schools, assisted by rate (tax) aid, and those who favoured a completely secular system of national schools.

28. Up to 1833, the administration of education in England was completely decentralized; there was no relationship between education and government. Throughout the first three decades of the nineteenth century, however, proponents of a national system of education were active. Whitbread, Brougham, and Roebuck¹ all presented Bills in Parliament which would have provided for national systems of education supported by the rates and by government grants as well as by fees. Roebuck maintained that each child in Great Britain from age 6 to age 12 should be a regular attendant at school. His Bill aroused keen debate in the House, and the Government showed in 1833 that it was not altogether indifferent to the subject by voting the sum of £40,000 to be used by the two large voluntary school-providing agencies² for the erection of school-houses. This marked the first participation of government, central or local, in public education in England. Administration, however, was still completely in the hands of

¹Samuel Whitbread, *Parochial Schools Bill*, 1807; Henry Brougham, *Parish Schools Bill*, 1820; Arthur Roebuck, 1833.

²The *British and Foreign School Society* and the *National Society for Promotion of the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church throughout England and Wales*.

voluntary agencies. The grant was renewed in each succeeding year, and the amount was gradually increased. By 1839, it was felt necessary to establish some central authority to supervise the disbursement of this public money, and a Committee of the Privy Council was formed for this purpose.

29. Throughout the next 40 years there were continued demands for rate aid to elementary schools; but the fact that nearly all schools were denominational made the problem difficult. Throughout this period there were no local authorities for educational purposes. Thus the practice grew of having a body of managers or governors in charge of each school. The selection of teachers and the curriculum, as well as details of management and finance, were left to these governing bodies, subject, in the case of schools operated by the large educational societies, to the general supervision of the society concerned.

30. Between 1833 and 1862, government grants were based on the contribution of the voluntary agency maintaining the school, but in the latter year the Revised Code introduced the so-called "payment-by-results" system whereby capitation grants were provided on the basis of examinations conducted by His Majesty's Inspectors. This resulted in a deterioration in the quality of education offered in the schools. It encouraged falsification of registers and the learning by rote of passages on which examinations were set. Furthermore, since grants to teachers in training had been withdrawn in 1862, the number of poorly qualified teachers increased. These factors so aggravated the situation that some change was imperative. Even confirmed individualists like J. S. Mill¹ publicly expressed their agreement with the necessity for an adequate system of public education.

31. The result was the Education Act of 1870, which inaugurated a system of school boards whose duty it was to make provision for elementary education where the facilities arranged by voluntary agencies were insufficient to meet the need. The state control over these boards was not much greater than that exercised over the agencies operating voluntary schools. The central authority confined itself to inspection for the purpose of determining whether regulations were being followed and to secure a basis for determining what grants should be paid. There was no suggestion that curricula and courses of study should be a concern of the central authority; but, indirectly, the "payment-by-results" system with its state-administered examinations had a stultifying effect upon the system of education. These board schools were for the most part confined to elementary education; secondary education, as provided in grammar schools and private schools, was still completely decentralized.

¹"Is it not almost a self-evident maxim that the State should require and compel the education up to a certain standard of every human being who is born its citizen?," J. S. Mill in *On Liberty*, Chapter V, p. 157 (Routledge edn.). Quoted by H. C. Barnard in *A Short History of English Education, 1760-1944*, London: University of London Press, 1947, p. 133.

32. The increased interest in scientific and technical education during the last decades of the nineteenth century led to a popular demand for technical and other advanced types of secondary schools, to be operated at public expense. Since the schools operated by the school boards could not undertake this additional work, secondary schools were placed under the direct administration of county and county borough councils, which had been authorized in 1886. This was a new procedure. It meant giving control of educational matters to local government bodies as opposed to *ad hoc*¹ school boards, such as those administering elementary education.

33. During this period it became increasingly evident that the school boards were not able to carry out all the duties which had been assigned to them. Something had to be done: either education would have to be more highly centralized under the Board of Education; or authorities with greater jurisdiction and resources would have to be formed. The latter solution was adopted in the Bryce Commission and in the Education Act of 1902. This Act brought a measure of order into the administrative chaos which had prevailed in English education during the previous century.

34. The Education Act of 1902 represented a centralizing trend, but only to the extent that it greatly increased the size of the unit of administration. Administration of the *interna* of education continued to be highly decentralized. The result was actually greater local autonomy since the new authorities could efficiently discharge the responsibilities which were assigned to them. Curricula, courses of study, textbooks, supervision, examinations, and even in many cases the training of teachers were made responsibilities of the local authorities. Decentralization went even further than this. Since the local authorities, in most cases, did not concern themselves with curricula and textbooks, responsibility for such matters devolved on the headmasters and teachers of the individual schools, usually in collaboration with the bodies of managers or bodies of governors.²

35. The organization effected by the Act of 1902 underwent no major change for a period of 42 years. Throughout this period, however, it became increasingly apparent that improvements could be made. The existence of two distinct authorities³ operating in one community was particularly criticized. It was also felt that most, if not all, of the Part III authorities were too small to be charged with administrative functions. The point of view of those favouring larger authorities is well expressed in the following quotation from an article by Mr. E. Salter Davies:⁴

¹*Ad hoc* school boards are boards established for the administration of education only.

²See below, paragraph 38.

³These were: Part III authorities, administering elementary education only; and Part II authorities, administering elementary and secondary education.

⁴"The Administration of Public Education in England," in *Modern Trends in Education*, A. E. Campbell, editor, Proceedings of the New Education Fellowship Conference held in New Zealand, July, 1937, Wellington: Whitcomb and Tombs, 1938, pp. 77-78.

Unless the smaller units of local government are replaced by larger units, it would appear to be inevitable that many of the functions now performed by local bodies will be absorbed by the central government. The enlargement of the areas of local government does not involve the extinction of the interest of the smaller towns and the villages. Such a result would be as unnecessary as it would be deplorable. Experience shows conclusively that satisfactory results in the sphere of local government can be obtained only where there is sufficient centralization to ensure a reasonable amount of uniformity and elimination of waste, and sufficient devolution to smaller local bodies to stimulate and maintain the interests of those removed from the seat of government. The supreme problem of local government is to achieve the golden mean between over-centralization and excessive decentralization. The former may lead to a soulless uniformity and to a lack of interest on the part of those most affected, while the latter, at its worst, leads to chaos.

36. Great shifts in population during the Second World War so aggravated the situation that the Education Act of 1944 abolished all existing Part III authorities and placed the three phases of education—primary, secondary, and further—in the hands of the councils of the counties and county boroughs. Thus, the Ministry of Education for England now deals with only 146 education authorities for a school population of between five and six million.

37. Although this reduction in the number of local education authorities represents a centralizing trend, it is not true that all local administration of education in England devolves on these 146 councils. As a matter of fact, in matters concerned with the *interna* of education the Act of 1944 provides for an even greater decentralization of many of the powers of local education authorities. The Act requires each local education authority to make schemes of divisional administration. Under such schemes each county is to be divided into a number of executive divisions, composed of boroughs and of urban and rural districts, either singly or in groups. The council is empowered to delegate to the divisional executives any of its powers relating to primary or secondary education, with the exception of matters concerned with raising rates and borrowing money. Thus, urban districts and boroughs which previously were Part III authorities continue to have a good deal to say in relation to the programmes and teachers in the schools in their communities. At the same time the rural districts as well as urban districts and boroughs which were not formerly Part III authorities are given powers in these matters which previously they did not possess.

38. The divisional executives represent the local education authority in dealings with the immediate administrators of individual schools, namely, the managers of primary schools and the governors of secondary schools. This practice is indicative of the extent of decentralization in England: each school or small group of schools is required to have a body of governors or managers, in conformity with the idea that "Every school of whatever type or category must have an individual life of its own as well as a

place in the local system.”¹ The managers or governors are administrators of schools, not of administrative units. They have no powers over expenditure, but they select the head teachers although the local education authority legally appoints them. The powers of managers and governors vary and are laid down by the local education authority in rules of management or articles of government. These usually distinguish between the powers and duties of the headmaster or headmistress, the body of managers or governors, and the local education authority or its representative.

39. In England the head teacher has more real authority than has his counterpart on this continent. The curriculum and the selection of assistant teachers are decided upon jointly by the head teacher and the managing or governing body.

40. It can thus be seen that the Act of 1944 represents both centralizing and decentralizing trends. The former are evident in the removal from the borough and urban district councils of direct power to raise a rate or borrow money and in the increased control of local education authorities over certain types of voluntary schools. The latter appear in the permission granted to local education authorities to delegate powers to rural district councils and in some cases to parish councils, both of which previously had no control over education; and in the extension to the primary field of the provision requiring boards of governors or managers for each school or group of schools. The general picture shows that in England the trend is toward centralization of what we have termed the *externa*, and toward continued and even extended decentralization of those items which we have termed the *interna* of education.

Australia

41. We have already indicated that in the states of the Commonwealth of Australia education is highly centralized. Both *interna* and *externa* are completely controlled by the central authority and enforced through a rigid system of state inspection.

42. The Australian situation can be used to exemplify the following advantages and disadvantages of a centralized system of education:

(a) Advantages of a Centralized System

- (1) The system may be operated more economically. Cramer² found that in 1929 the cost per pupil in the State of Victoria was about 60 per cent of that for Oregon, an average American state. To some extent this was partly accounted for by larger classes, fewer library books and

¹White Paper on “Principles of Government in Maintained Secondary Schools”, 1944, quoted in D. J. Beattie, B. S. Taylor, and E. T. Davis, *The New Law of Education*. London: Butterworth, 1944, p. 124.

²John Francis Cramer, *Australian Schools Through American Eyes*, Educational Research Series No. 42, Melbourne: University of Melbourne Press, 1936.

supplies, and poorer janitor service. But much was saved by elimination of duplication of services and by the provision of correspondence courses in place of the operation of smaller schools.

- (2) All districts are served equally. There are not the excellent buildings such as are found in parts of the United States and Canada, but neither are there the poor ones. As a rule, teachers in rural areas are as highly qualified as those in urban areas. Australia is justifiably proud of her system of rural schools.
- (3) Reforms can be put into effect rapidly and thoroughly. Administrators have to be quite certain of their ground as the effects are far-reaching, and probably this partly accounts for lack of experimentation and initiative. However, there have been signs of late that the systems are becoming more sensitive to public needs.
- (4) A centralized system facilitates the establishment and operation of state-wide services such as medical and dental inspection. These are available to every child, and yet the aggregate cost is less than in a decentralized system.

(b) Disadvantages of a Centralized System

- (1) Local interest is not encouraged. Since school affairs are the business of the state, there is no local participation and no healthy rivalry between districts. Because education is a function of the central authority only, complacency may easily develop.
- (2) Centralized systems tend to be bureaucratic. Precedent and tradition hinder progress. Inbreeding may make the system autocratic and cautious, as may lock-step methods of promotion. On the other hand, a capable director can wield a great influence.
- (3) Close control over education by political parties has prevented long-range planning. The powers of officials are limited, since changes have to be enacted by law.
- (4) Teachers generally have no opportunity to show the initiative common on this continent and in England. Classification of teachers through inspection and external state examinations tends to prevent experimentation and adaptation of courses to local needs.

The United States of America

43. Responsibility for education in the United States of America, with reference to the jurisdiction of the federal government, is highly decentralized. In individual states, however, decentralization of educational administration is not as extensive as it is in England. On the average, the situation might be described as occupying approximately the middle ground between the highly decentralized English system and the highly centralized Australian system. But, on the whole, there is greater decentralization in the United States than in Ontario.

44. Conflicting tendencies have moulded the educational systems of the various states. The first of these arises from the desire of the public to control its own affairs. This tends to result in decentralization. The other, a more recent development, arises from the application of principles of efficient management and scientific control to the types of education which the public wishes to provide. This tends to result in centralization.

45. In most American states complete decentralization of education, such as obtained in Great Britain previous to 1833, has never existed. Almost from the beginning the various state and territorial governments passed legislation relative to education. Most of this consisted of a delegation of state powers to smaller governmental units: at first to the school "district", which was usually the attendance area of a single school; and later to larger units, such as the New England town,¹ the county, the township, or several townships combined. Until the latter part of the nineteenth century and in some states until well into the present century, these local education authorities controlled to a large degree both the *interna* and *externa* of education.

46. With the growing urbanization of America and the demand for education in excess of the three R's, there developed a tendency, in most states, toward centralization; and the trend still continues. The problem was well expressed by the National Advisory Committee on Education in 1931:

The American people must face the problem of conflict between our traditional policy of state and local autonomy and this growing trend toward federal centralization . . . It may well be that the apparent immediate educational efficiencies which are the aim of centralized federal management of education, may be completely counter-balanced by other ultimate losses in social and political functioning. It is the conviction of this Committee that harm results when intimacy between schools and their patrons and neighbours is disturbed by remote control of a distant authority.²

The movement has, as its motive, administrative efficiency rather than control over education in the interests of a sovereign state.

47. Although most states prescribe a basic curriculum in terms of subjects which must be taught, such as the history of the Constitution of the United States and of the state concerned, conservation of life and property, nationalism, and the three R's, most states leave the *interna* of education to local authorities. In many states this includes even the training of teachers. It includes also general supervision, and it is in this respect that American state systems differ most widely from those in the provinces of Canada, where supervision is almost universally a function of the central education authority. The centralization which has taken place in the various

¹The New England town is comparable to an Ontario township except that it includes all urban places within it.

²National Advisory Committee on Education, *Federal Relations to Education*, Part I, pp. 12 *et seq.*

states has, therefore, been largely in the field of *externa*, through the provision of adequate physical accommodation and opportunity for all children to have access to a satisfactory type of education. The ideal situation has been expressed by Elwood P. Cubberly:

It ought to be essentially the business of the State to formulate a constructive policy for the development of the education of the people of the State, and to change this policy from time to time as the changing needs of the State may seem to require . . . The formulaion of minimum standards for the various forms of public education, the raising of these standards from time to time, the protection of these standards from being lowered by private agencies, and the stimulation of communities to additional educational activity, is a fundamental right and duty of the State. On the other hand, to find what can safely be left to local initiative and control, and then to pass this down, ought to be as much a function of proper state school administration as is the removal from community control of matters which communities cannot longer handle with a reasonable degree of effectiveness. Unity in essentials and liberty in non-essentials, as high minimum standards for all as is possible, constant stimulation to communities to exceed the minima required, and large liberty to communities in the choice of methods and tools and in the extension of educational advantages and opportunities, ought to be cardinal principles in a State's educational policy and in its relation to its subordinate governmental units.¹

48. Generally speaking, the south-eastern states have a higher degree of centralization than have the north-eastern and western states. North Carolina is generally considered to have the most highly centralized system of education.² There the entire cost of the minimum programme for a nine-month term is borne by the state; county school boards are appointed by the Legislature; the full cost of transportation is paid by the state; and the central authority prescribes the course of studies and textbooks to be used. County superintendents, while appointed by the county boards of education, work in close co-operation with the state Department of Education, since they must be certificated by that body and their salaries are paid by the state. On the other hand, the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania is an example of a highly decentralized system, with thousands of local authorities each selecting its own textbooks and deciding its own curricula. Supervision is by officials appointed and paid locally.

49. In some quarters it is considered that centralization in the United States has progressed too far and is concerning itself with matters which might rightly be left to local initiative. Edgar L. Morphet, writing in 1945,³ analyzed the problem of state responsibility and concluded that the move

¹E. P. Cubberly, *Public School Administration*, Cambridge, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin, 1929, pp. 28 *et seq.*

²With the exception of Delaware, which is so small that it is more nearly comparable to a county than a state or province.

³Edgar L. Morphet, "Relationship of Education to Government", *Forty-fourth Year Book*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945, pp. 153-186.

toward state centralization had gone too far in certain states and in others not far enough. The Southern States Work Conference¹ challenged the implications of the traditional assumption that education is the exclusive responsibility of the state. George D. Strayer,² surveying the system of public education in the State of West Virginia, asserted that centralization in county boards of education in that state had gone too far, and that nowhere in the United States was the administration of education so far removed from the people. He recommended that local committees be appointed or elected for local attendance areas, and that certain definite powers be granted to them. His greatest criticism was that the establishment of county minimum programmes had tended to prevent small communities which had the desire or the resources to do so from providing education in excess of the minimum. Similar criticism has been made of the county boards of education in North Carolina, where the state minimum has tended to become the maximum even in counties which can afford to do more.

Other Provinces of Canada

50. All the other provinces of Canada, with the exception of Quebec and Newfoundland, have tended to follow Ontario's lead in the centralization of educational administration. Most of what has already been said in this matter in relation to Ontario is therefore true of these seven provinces. There are, however, a few minor variations which are worthy of note. The formation of larger units of administration, a centralizing trend, began earlier and developed more rapidly in some provinces than in Ontario. In nearly all cases, when larger units of administration have been formed local sub-units of some type or other have been retained with elected committees or boards responsible for certain definite matters. Thus, the tendency in other provinces has been, as much as possible, to maintain local control at the level of the small community while providing for larger units to administer those aspects of education which it was impossible, or uneconomical, to administer through the small district or section organizations. The provinces of Alberta, Saskatchewan, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia have avoided the error, which Strayer accuses West Virginia of committing and which is also noticeable in the North Carolina system, of removing control too far from the local community. In British Columbia, although the small local districts were abolished, provision was made for school meetings in the various attendance areas within the new larger

¹Southern States Work Conference, *Building a Better Southern Region Through Education*, Southern States Work Conference on School Administrative Problems, Tallahassee, Fla., 1944.

²George D. Strayer, *A Report of a Survey of Public Education in the State of West Virginia*, Legislative Interim Committee, State of West Virginia, 1945.

units to select the delegates who, in turn, elect the members of the larger unit boards.¹ Furthermore, the units in British Columbia might well be considered as community districts.

51. None of the provinces, in introducing the larger unit of administration, seems to have considered the possibility of decentralizing the function of supervision. It is understandable that, in a system where there were thousands of small school authorities, supervision had to be a responsibility of the central authority; but British Columbia, the Prairie Provinces, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia have continued this practice even after units of a satisfactory size have been set up. This might easily result in an ever greater centralization of all aspects of education in these provinces.

52. Other ways in which other provinces of Canada differ from Ontario in the matter of decentralization are as follows:

- (1) In New Brunswick the cities and larger towns employ superintendents of schools, appointed and paid by the local education authorities but not certificated by the central authority. For purposes of supervision of instruction, these urban school systems are almost completely independent of the central authority.
- (2) In Saskatchewan the unit superintendent, an employee of the central authority, has recently been given "general supervision . . . over the work of the secretary-treasurer and office of the unit board" as well as over all schools and teachers in the unit. This is a further indication of the trend toward giving the agent of the central authority the real power in the locality.
- (3) In the western provinces of Canada and in New Brunswick, the custom has been for the central authority to appoint one of its officials as the official trustee of a local school unit in which there is no person eligible to act as school trustee, where eligible persons refuse to act, or where trustees refuse to operate a school. This practice was most marked in British Columbia during the depression years; larger units of administration were formed with a provincially appointed director of education as official trustee. The practice stemmed from the recommendation of the Putman-Weir Report² of 1925, which stated that only when ratepayers bear the major portion of the financial burden should they be allowed to determine the amount of that burden. The practice represents a centralizing trend and reflects the position of those³ who believe that education should, wherever possible, be completely centralized in provincial Departments of Education.

¹See Chapter VIII.

²J. H. Putman and G. M. Weir, *Survey of the School System, Province of British Columbia*, Victoria: King's Printer, 1925.

³See Briefs 35, 77, 98, and 171, letter 42 to The Royal Commission on Education, and letter 16 to the Department of Education referred to The Royal Commission on Education.

SUMMARY

53. We must now, in the light of all these facts, seek to determine what, for our province, is the most satisfactory division of administrative powers and duties between the central and local education authorities. There is no question of having a system of complete decentralization or of complete centralization: the latter seems to be necessary only under totalitarian systems of government. It seems to us self-evident that in a democratic society the administration of education should be a partnership between the central and local authorities; our problem, then, is to determine what aspects shall be centralized in the name of efficiency, economy, and equity of educational opportunity, and which shall be decentralized in the name of democratic local control over education and provision for growth through experimentation.

54. The people of Ontario are faced with certain definite alternatives. In the first place, they may choose to continue as at present with the *interna* of education highly centralized in the Department of Education and with some of the *externa* widely decentralized in the hands of thousands of small local authorities. In the light of our investigations and the ideas expressed in many briefs presented to us, we feel that this alternative cannot be accepted. It results in a growing lethargy on the part of the people in relation to educational matters. It produces the assumption by the central authority of administrative functions which, under other circumstances, would normally be assumed by local authorities. Through large legislative grants it perpetuates small, inefficient, and uneconomical units of administration which are unable to discharge effectively any real responsibility in relation to the essentials of education. In the second place, Ontario could choose to centralize completely the administration of education under the Department of Education. This alternative has been suggested in briefs as a means of achieving efficiency and equal opportunity for all. We believe, however, that complete centralization is not consonant with our ideals of democratic government, and that it would be distasteful to the vast majority of our citizens. Finally, Ontario might choose to adopt the type of organization generally regarded as best suited to a democratic society. Under such a plan, the administration of the *interna* of education would be decentralized, with the central authority functioning in an advisory capacity and ensuring the maintenance of adequate minimum standards; on the other hand, the administration of the *externa* of education, which has in the past been decentralized too widely, would be centralized—not in the Department of Education, but in local units of administration having a sufficient number of pupils to warrant the employment of an adequate staff. This latter seems to be the best organization for Ontario, and is the alternative toward which our recommendations are directed. We realize, however, that there are factors which may make it

impossible to achieve this ideal in all parts of the province at once. We may have to go slowly; existing relationships cannot be terminated before new ones have been firmly established to take their place.

55. We therefore recommend

- (a) *that, to the extent feasible, a policy of gradual decentralization of the interna of education be initiated, with increasing control of such items as curricula, courses of study, textbooks, supervision of instruction, and the establishment and operation of special services being delegated to local education authorities administering local school units of such size as to warrant the possession of such comprehensive powers and duties;*
- (b) *that, to the extent feasible, the control of such externa as the business administration of schools, the provision of satisfactory post-elementary education, the provision of a sufficient number of schools, the enforcement of statutory provisions for compulsory attendance, the transportation of pupils, or services in lieu thereof, the financing of the minimum programme, and capital expenditure remain decentralized from the standpoint of the central authority, but be centralized under the control of such local education authorities.*

APPENDIX

SUPPORTING EVIDENCE RELATING TO CENTRALIZATION AND DECENTRALIZATION

56. The basic stand which we have taken in our recommendations in this chapter is supported by prominent educationists on this continent and in Great Britain. One of the foremost students of educational administration in the United States, Professor I. L. Kandel of Columbia University, believes that:

The essential difference between the educational systems of the world is to be found in this conflict between moulding youth to a pattern and developing free intelligence. On the one side are dictatorships or totalitarian states; on the other are those states which have retained their faith in the ideals of democracy . . .¹

With this view we substantially agree. To the argument that, when education is largely financed by the central authority, control should also be in the hands of that body, Kandel gives the following answer:

Equality of educational opportunity, which is the essence of a democratic scheme of education, can only be provided through the concerted efforts of society acting through constituted government agencies. But it does not follow that the provision and support of education by the State must be accompanied by control

¹I. L. Kandel, "School and Society", in *Modern Trends in Education*, A. E. Campbell, editor, Proceedings of the New Education Fellowship Conference held in New Zealand, July, 1937, p. 4.

from the State. If the interests of society are best served by providing for the fullest development of the individual and by the promotion of variety of experience due to variety of abilities, interests and environments rather than by uniformity, then the task of the State is to create the best machinery for their encouragement and the concern of the State should not be that all are educated alike according to a common syllabus or a prescribed examination but that all should have equal opportunities for education accessible to them. A democratic society if it leaves both the provision and the control of education to the State is just as much in danger as a totalitarian state of establishing a monopoly of education, not only to the exclusion of private schools but to the prevention of experimentation and adaptation to local needs—whether social or individual.¹

As to what the function of a governmental authority should be, he states further:

The function of a governmental authority in education—whether State or local—is to provide the means for promoting equality of educational opportunity, exercising such supervision as will guarantee equality of educational provision, and creating such conditions as will enable teachers to do their best work in the school and classroom. For the State to do otherwise would in the end mean that it seeks to control the free development of social and national culture and to prevent that adaptation to changing demands by which alone a culture can advance.²

57. Sir Percy Meadon, sometime Director of Education for Lancashire and earlier for Essex, has made a somewhat similar statement:³

Educational administration has rightly been stated to be one of those subsidiary services which are in themselves without value except in so far as they secure the success of their object . . . The object of educational administration should, therefore, be to 'enable the right pupils to receive the right education from the right teachers, at a cost within the means of the State, under conditions which will enable the pupils best to profit by their training.'

58. The following quotation from Kandel's *Comparative Education*⁴ more nearly describes the average school in Great Britain than it does the average school in the United States of America:

. . . differences between centralized and decentralized systems lead to a consideration of those aspects of education in which control may properly be exercised by central and local authorities in the interests of education. The centralized system assumes control virtually over all aspects of education—the enactment of laws, decrees, and regulations, the limits of compulsory attendance, the establishment and closing of schools, the character of the school buildings, the preparation and certification of teachers, the curricula and courses of study and even methods of instruction in all types of schools, standards of achievement, textbooks, the prescription of salary scales, local administration, and the internal management of schools. Bureaucracy omits no detail, so that when the teacher confronts the pupils in a classroom, sometimes decorated and adorned according to regu-

¹*Ibid.*, pp. 12-13.

²*Ibid.*, p. 13.

³Sir Percy Meadon, "The Administration of Education in England", in *Modern Trends in Education*, pp. 59-60.

⁴I. L. Kandel, *Comparative Education*, pp. 215-217.

lations, he becomes practically the mouthpiece of the central authority, a skilled craftsman very frequently but hewing to the line. Now the question which at once arises is whether this is education or propaganda; whether such a system does not destroy the character of the school as a human institution and of instruction as the impact of mind upon mind. Because the essence of such a system of administration is mechanization, the results are often mechanical, rigid, and formal, and superficially the pupils acquire a certain body of content which is neither their own nor their teacher's; it is in such systems that mass education is run at its worst. What is mechanized tends to be destroyed; what is over-organized tends to be killed.

. . . Laws and regulations may well deal, since it is in the interests of the nation as a whole, with the compulsory attendance, length of school year, the character of buildings and playgrounds from the educational and hygienic standpoints, medical inspection and health, the size of classes, the qualifications, salaries, and pensions of teachers, the provision of a coordinated system of schools to ensure equality of opportunity—these are the mechanics of an educational system which seek to set up those conditions under which the process of education can best be conducted. They are the *externa* which make it possible to bring the right pupil to the right school under the right teacher; they ensure that equality of opportunity which democratic systems of education are seeking to provide. The *interna*, those aspects of education for the promotion of which teachers and pupils are brought together, are the curricula, courses of study, methods of instruction, textbooks and standards. These are aspects of education which cannot be legislated and prescribed from above if genuine progress, adaptation to the pupils and their environment, and professional initiative on the part of the teachers are to be encouraged. If the central authority regards itself as the constituted guardian and interpreter of national culture, if nationalism and the national ideal are to be defined from the same source, if the aim of education is to mould all individuals according to a particular pattern, or if a perverted notion of efficiency accepts uniformity bureaucratically determined and controlled, the *interna* may be prescribed by the central authority and not changed until it chooses to do so. If, however, the principle is accepted that national culture is not something that can be reduced to a formula and that national ideals cannot be centrally defined, and if the promotion of initiative, growth, and personality based on a sense of social duty and obligation is the end of education, then the educative process and everything involved in it cannot be governmentalized. The central authority may, however, on the basis of the information at its disposal furnish guidance through suggestions and reports without interfering with that freedom of experimentation which makes for variety of character.

59. Statements concerning centralization and decentralization such as those made by Kandel are seldom found in British educational literature owing to the Englishman's disinclination to theorize. However, the ideas so well expressed by Kandel have been put into practice by the educationists of Great Britain.

60. Authorities seem to be agreed that certain aspects of educational administration should be under the control of the central authority, and that others should be under the control of local education authorities; but very few scientific studies have been made to determine which items should be centralized and which should not. There is one such experiment,

which Mort¹ refers to as “the first attempt to throw the light of empirical evidence on the nature of activities which should be centralized and those which should be decentralized”. This was a study by François S. Cillié of Pretoria, Union of South Africa, made at Columbia University in 1940. Cillié made a scientific study of 16 “communities” within the centralized system of New York City and the same number of decentralized communities in the metropolitan area, matched as to geographical, educational, financial, socio-economic, and professional factors, to discover the effect on 170² educational adaptations.³ He set out to test the Mort-Cornell hypothesis that some adaptations prosper best under decentralized administration, that others prosper best under centralized administration, and that still others prosper regardless of the type of administration. Not only did his results verify the hypothesis, but they also showed that adaptations prosper in the three above-mentioned situations in the ratio of approximately 5:2:10. They showed that 58 per cent of the adaptations prospered irrespective of the type of administration; that 30 per cent prospered best under decentralized administration; and that only 12 per cent prospered best under centralized administration. This does not mean, of course, that administration should be divided 30:12 between local and central authorities. Nor does it mean that it would be better to have a completely decentralized system than a completely centralized one. It might well be that the 12 per cent of adaptations which prosper best under centralization are so vital that they more than outweigh in educational portent the 30 per cent which prosper best under decentralization. What the study does show is that a co-operative system is best; certain aspects of education should be centralized; and certain aspects should be decentralized.

61. Table 1 gives a summary of Cillié's findings. In regard to it, we note the following points:

- (1) There seems to be evidence that provision for the education of markedly atypical children is best left to the central authority.
- (2) The economic security of the teacher should be assured by the central authority.
- (3) Efficiency of administration seems to prosper best under centralization. The study does not prove, however, to what extent centralization must proceed to achieve the beneficial results recorded. The specific items

¹Paul R. Mort in foreword to *Centralization or Decentralization*, by François Cillié, New York, 1940, p. vi.

²Chosen from the 183 adaptations in the Mort-Cornell “Guide for the Self-Appraisal of School Systems”.

³Defined as follows: “Adaptation in the generic sense has to do with the sloughing off of outmoded purposes and practices by school systems and the taking on of new ones to meet new needs. . . . Adaptation used in the specific sense refers to a single instance where adaptation has taken place.” Paul R. Mort and Francis G. Cornell, *Adaptability of Public School Systems*, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938, p. ix.

TABLE 1

SUMMARY OF CILLIÉ'S FINDINGS CONCERNING THE EFFECT OF CENTRALIZED AND DECENTRALIZED ADMINISTRATION ON EDUCATIONAL ADAPTATIONS

<i>Adaptation Category</i>	<i>Adaptations which reveal a significant difference in favour of decentralized communities</i>	<i>Adaptations which reveal a significant difference in favour of centralized communities</i>	<i>Adaptations which show no significant difference</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Capacity for Change</i>				
A. Flexibility	12	0	3	15
<i>The Individual Pupil</i>				
B. Individualization	8	0	12	20
C. Provision for deviates	1	2	2	5
D. Provision of health service	2	0	2	4
<i>The Teaching Personnel</i>				
E. Democratization	5(3) ^a	0	0	5(3)
F. Excellence of personnel standards	0	0	4	4
G. Programme of teacher improvement	1	1	8	10
H. Economic security of teacher	0	4	0	4
<i>The Curriculum</i>				
I. Vitalization of traditional subjects	5(1)	0	9	14(1)
J. Enrichment of the curriculum	0	0	15	15
K. Extension of the curriculum	1	1	7	9
<i>School and Community</i>				
L. Co-operation between home and school	1	0	2	3
M. Co-operation between school and community agencies	0	1	4	5
N. Social orientation of the school	5	1	4(1)	10(1)
<i>Buildings and Equipment</i>				
O. Extension of material provision	12(1)	0	13	25(1)
P. Implementation of the aesthetic principle	1	0	4	5
<i>Professionalized Administration</i>				
Q. Efficiency	2	10	11	23
TOTAL	56(5)	20	100(1)	176(6)
PERCENTAGE	30	12	58	100

^aFigures in parentheses refer to adaptation items, six in number, which were grouped in more than one category.

classed under the category "Efficiency" which Cillié found to prosper best under centralization are the following:

- (a) availability of pupil records to teachers;
 - (b) the presence of a research organization in the school system;
 - (c) adequate budgetary procedure;
 - (d) no localism in personnel appointments;
 - (e) continuing analysis of needs;
 - (f) all appropriations based upon objective need;
 - (g) adequate accounting of all expenditures;
 - (h) adequate accounting of all receipts;
 - (i) goods and services receipted and checked; and
 - (j) annual state or independent audit.
- (4) The capacity for change, as evidenced by the flexibility of various aspects of the instructional side (as opposed to the business side) of education, seems overwhelmingly to be favoured by decentralization, not of business administration, but of authority over such things as elementary schedules (time-tables); modification and revision of courses of study; experimental methods, devices and materials; grade organization; classroom furniture, etc.
- (5) Another item which prospers best under decentralization is "democratization" of teaching personnel. This includes
- (a) co-operative development of courses of study;
 - (b) experimentation with methods and devices not included in the course of study;
 - (c) use of experimental materials in schools;
 - (d) encouraging teachers to experiment; and
 - (e) teachers given a voice in determining the character and quantity of educational supplies.
- (6) Under the heading of buildings and equipment, it is interesting to note that Cillié found that none of the 25 items in the category "Extension of Material Provision" was favoured in a centralized system; about half of the items prospered independently of the type of administration, and the other half prospered best under decentralization.

CHAPTER VIII

DEVELOPMENT AND PRESENT STATUS OF LOCAL SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

1. The size and nature of a local unit of school administration¹ are mechanical aspects of educational administration. So also are the jurisdiction of a local education authority,² the number of its members, the method of their selection, and other related matters. All these influence the educational programme offered but are not to be considered as ends in themselves. They are the means of achieving a satisfactory environment for school activities, and hence must receive careful consideration in any general survey of educational administration, especially as there have been strong conflicts of opinion about them in the past.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF UNITS OF ADMINISTRATION AND LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES IN ONTARIO

Elementary Education

2. The first half-century of educational legislation in Ontario witnessed a struggle for ascendancy between advocates of two different conceptions regarding the constitution of a basic³ unit of school administration. On the one hand, were those who believed that the attendance area⁴ of each school

¹The terms *unit of administration* and *administrative unit* are used interchangeably in this chapter and refer to the territory which for certain school purposes is under the jurisdiction of a single education authority. An administrative unit may itself be part of another administrative unit, and may in turn contain other smaller administrative units. It may contain any number of schools.

²As used in this Report, a *local education authority* is defined as any person or corporate body which has jurisdiction over local as distinguished from state or provincial educational matters. One local education authority may be subordinate to another.

³Units of administration are classified as *basic* or *intermediate* on the basis of their relationship to other units. The smallest unit having significant administrative control is classed as the basic unit, while any larger unit which exercises financial, supervisory, or other control over basic units is an intermediate unit. Basic units can exist without intermediate units. The latter cannot exist without the former.

⁴An attendance area includes all the territory from which pupils attend a given school and may or may not be an administrative unit. It may lie wholly within one administrative unit, partly in two or more administrative units, or form an administrative unit by itself.

should be the basic unit, with a board of trustees¹ to administer the affairs of the school; on the other hand, were those who believed that a municipality² (city, town, or township) should be the basic unit of administration, and that one board of trustees should have jurisdiction over all schools within the municipality. There was agreement, however, on the desirability of an intermediate unit for purposes of supervision and the certification of teachers.

3. Under the Common School Act of 1816,³ the attendance area of each school became, in effect, the basic administrative unit. Each school was administered by a board of 3 elected trustees. In each district,⁴ provision was made for appointment, by the Governor, of a 5-man board of education, the chief duty of which was to superintend the schools of the district and apportion the legislative grant to the teachers. No local board of trustees could dismiss a teacher without the approval of the district board of education. In 1824 the Act was amended⁵ so that the power to certificate teachers was transferred from the local boards to district boards of education.

4. In the years between 1824 and 1841, no less than four Bills were presented to the Legislature proposing further amendments. None became law. We should note, however, what they proposed, in order to understand the ideas to which Ryerson fell heir and which helped to mould the school system of the province.

5. The first, introduced by William Buell in 1831, was the only one which contained provision for the administration of both elementary and secondary schools by the same local authority. It proposed that each township⁶ be the basic unit of administration for elementary schools, with an elected board of 3 superintendents (trustees), and that a 5-man district board of education be elected by a group of superintendents (each of whom had previously been selected for the purpose by the local township board), to have supervision over elementary schools, and to be the board of trustees of the district grammar school.⁷ The district was to be the basic unit for secondary education and an intermediate unit for elementary education. Buell's Bill was the first attempt to have the township established as the

¹Local education authorities are given various names, one of which is *board of trustees*. Others are *school board*, *board of education*, and *municipal council*.

²The term municipality, as used in this Report, refers to a local government unit. The present municipal organization of Ontario is described below.

³*An Act Granting to His Majesty a Sum of Money to be Applied to the Use of Common Schools Throughout This Province, and to Provide for the Regulation of the said Common Schools*, 56 Geo. III, Ch. 36, S.U.C.

⁴The Province of Upper Canada was at that time divided into eight "districts" for judicial and other purposes.

⁵*An Act to make permanent and extend the provisions of the law now in force for the establishment and regulation of Common Schools throughout this Province, and for granting to his Majesty a further sum of money to promote and encourage education within the same*, 4 Geo. IV, Ch. 8, S.U.C.

⁶Each district contained a number of townships and unorganized territory.

⁷See below, paragraph 19.

basic unit for elementary schools in lieu of the attendance area of each school.

6. In 1833 Mahlon Burwell presented a Bill which would have retained the attendance area of each school as the basic unit, while providing for two intermediate units: the township and the district. Local school trustees and township school commissioners were to be elected, and the district boards of education were to be appointed. The main change from the existing system was the introduction of the township as an intermediate unit between the attendance area of each school and the district.

7. In 1835 a Bill proposed, as had the 1831 Bill, the abolition of school attendance areas as basic units of administration and the administration of schools by townships. The "inhabitant householders" of each township were to elect 3 persons as township school superintendents. These, in turn, were to elect or appoint a member of the district board of education.

8. In 1836 Dr. Charles Duncombe, Chairman of a Commission on Education appointed by the Legislature, presented a report together with a draft Bill. He recommended that the school attendance area be the basic unit, and that the district boards of education be superseded by township boards of school commissioners of 3 members, elected at the same time and in the same manner as other township officers.

9. The General School Act of 1841¹ showed the influence of some of these rejected Bills, in such matters as the abolition of the office of local school trustee and the election of township school commissioners to operate all the schools of the township. An innovation, however, was the transfer of the powers of the former district boards of education to the newly created² district councils.

10. This plan of township boards of commissioners was abandoned in Ontario in 1843³ after only two years' operation. The attendance area of each school again became the basic unit of administration. The attendance area was designated "school district", as Dr. Duncombe had suggested. Two intermediate units were created, as proposed in Burwell's Bill of 1833. One was the town or city, administered by the municipal council; the other was the district, administered by the district council.

11. The Act of 1846⁴ was the first in the drafting of which Ryerson had a part. Under it the basic administrative unit became the "school section", the attendance area of a single school being so designated for the first time. The township ceased to be an intermediate unit. The district councils

¹*An Act to repeal certain Acts therein mentioned, and to make further provision for the establishment and maintenance of Common Schools throughout this Province*, 4 & 5 Vict., Ch. 18, S.P.C.

²*The District Municipal Act*, 1841.

³*An Act for the Establishment and Maintenance of Common Schools in Upper Canada*, 7 Vict., Ch. 29, S.P.C.

⁴*An Act for the Better Establishment and Maintenance of Common Schools in Upper Canada*, 9 Vict., Ch. 20, S.P.C.

became the local authorities for the district intermediate units. Section trustees were to be elected for three-year terms rather than for one-year terms as had previously been the case.

12. The school Act¹ of 1847 placed the administration of all schools in a city or town under a single school board appointed² by the city or town council, instead of having a board of trustees for each school. A distinction was made, for the first time, between schools in urban centres and those in rural areas.

13. In his draft Bill of 1849 Ryerson had made no provision for township school boards, although in comments thereto he indicated his belief that the system of township units would soon be acknowledged as superior to that in force. Township boards were actually provided for in the Act of 1850,³ which he prepared, although the school section was made the basic unit, except in cities and towns; but such boards could be formed only by the affirmative vote of the majority of the resident householders of each of the school sections of the township. And, since the opposition of one school section could defeat the wishes of the rest of the township, only one⁴ such township board had been formed by 1871.

14. By 1866 Ryerson was convinced that the school section should be superseded by the township as the basic unit of administration. In that year he personally put the question before 40 county school conventions and was supported by favourable resolutions from 25. As a result of this sampling of public opinion, he drafted a Bill which included provision for the election of township boards when the vote in a majority of the sections of a township was favourable; but the Bill was never presented. The same provision was contained in Ryerson's draft of a Bill presented in 1868, following his return from an inspection of the school systems of Europe. The Bill was held over until 1869, when it underwent so many amendments at the hands of a select committee that at Ryerson's suggestion it was withdrawn.

15. The draft Bill prepared in 1870 represented Ryerson's most forceful attempt to have township boards supersede school section boards. It provided that a county council should have authority "to form any of the Townships within its jurisdiction into one School Municipality, as is each City and Town, and to establish a Township Board of Common School Trustees."⁵ The consent of even a majority of the sections concerned was not required, although such a provision had been a feature of the two previous draft Bills (1866 and 1869) authorizing the formation of township

¹*An Act for Amending the Common Schools Act of Upper Canada*, 10 & 11 Vict., Ch. 19, S.P.C.

²This method of selecting urban school boards proved unsatisfactory and was replaced in 1850 by the elective method.

³*An Act for the Better Establishment and Maintenance of Common Schools in Upper Canada*, 13 & 14 Vict., Ch. 48, S.P.C.

⁴The Township of Enniskillen in Lambton County.

⁵J. G. Hodgins, *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada, 1869-1871*, Vol. XXII, Toronto: King's Printer, 1908, pp. 187-8.

boards by township councils. However, the Act¹ which resulted gave authority to township councils to form township units, but only where the ratepayers of two-thirds of the sections voted favourably. This provision for the formation of township boards remained in force until 1896,² when the council of any municipality composed of more than one township in territory without county organization was given the power to choose between establishing a single public school board for the whole municipality and dividing the municipality into school sections. Legislation of 1921 permitted the formation of a township school area of "any portion of a township lying contiguous to a city or town", if favoured by four-fifths of the township council concerned. In 1922 a simple majority of the council was given power to establish such a suburban township school area.

16. In 1925-26 a further attempt was made to establish the township as the basic unit of administration for elementary schools. The Minister of Education, G. H. Ferguson, introduced a Bill in the Legislature to provide for the administration of the public schools in each township by an elected board of school trustees of between 3 and 10 members. Each trustee was to have authority, as determined by the board, over the schools in one of the areas into which the township was to be divided, in such matters as repairs, supplies, caretaking, and substitute teachers. There was opposition, chiefly from trustees throughout the rural areas of the province, and, despite an active campaign waged by the Department of Education to popularize the Bill, it was finally withdrawn. Sandiford, writing in 1935, said of this opposition:

He [the Minister of Education] asked the school trustees to report on the wisdom of his scheme, that is, whether or not they should agree to abolish themselves. The answer, of course, was an emphatic negative, for nobody likes to relinquish powers, even if these are small and insignificant. Whenever a change is made it will have to be made despite the opposition of the existing trustees . . .³

17. The latest attempt to establish the township as the basic unit of administration was made in 1932. Township councils were empowered to form all or any part of a township into a township school area and to abolish the constituent sections. It was not until 1938, however, that the Department attempted to encourage the practice. These efforts together with financial inducements in the form of increased grants have resulted in the reorganization into township school areas of more than half the former public school sections of the province.

18. Some time before this, in 1919, an endeavour was made to extend to rural areas the advantages enjoyed in urban centres, where, since 1847,

¹*An Act to Improve the Common and Grammar Schools of the Province of Ontario*, 34 Vict., Ch. 33, S.O., 1871.

²*An Act Consolidating and Revising the Public Schools Acts*, 59 Vict., Ch. 70, S.O.

³Peter Sandiford, "Problems of Canadian Education", *The School*, XXIII (April, 1935), pp. 657-658.

all public elementary schools had been administered by a single local authority. An amendment was passed permitting the establishment of consolidated school sections when the ratepayers in all the sections concerned had voted in favour of them. In such sections a graded school would be operated, thus affording many of the advantages to be found in urban schools.

Secondary Education

19. No parallel development of administrative units for secondary education has taken place in Ontario. The Public School Act¹ of 1807, under which grants were made to grammar schools, provided for the appointment, by the Governor, of a district public school board consisting of not less than 5 members for each of the districts into which the province was divided for civil purposes. Thus, two characteristics of the present secondary school units were established at that early date: the appointment of trustees for secondary schools; and the use of the district (county) as a unit of administration. The Act of 1807 remained operative until 1853. By that time it had sometimes become necessary, owing to the growth of population, to have more than one grammar school in some districts. Where this occurred, one board of trustees administered all such schools.

20. The Grammar School Act of 1853² was drafted by Ryerson in 1850 as a companion to his Common School Act³ of that year. The newly formed counties became the basic units for secondary schools. Six trustees were to be appointed for each school by the county councils rather than by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council. The principle of having trustees serve for overlapping terms was introduced. Provision was made for the union of a grammar school with the common school or schools of the township, village, town, or city in which the grammar school was located. Joint boards of grammar and common school trustees, consisting of 8 grammar school and 6 common school trustees, were to be in charge of such union schools. This was the origin of provisions for union boards of education which, with amendments, are in force today. Such unions, the majority of which were necessary to secure local financial support for the grammar school, proved, on the whole, to be detrimental both to the common schools and to the grammar schools.

21. In 1865⁴ several changes were made relating to grammar school authorities and units of administration. City, town, and village councils were given a share in the appointment of grammar school trustees. Cities

¹*An Act to Establish Public Schools in Each and Every District of this Province*, 47 Geo. III, Ch. 6, S.U.C.

²*An Act to Amend the Law relating to Grammar Schools in Upper Canada*, 16 Vict., Ch. 186, S.P.C.

³*An Act for the Better Establishment and Maintenance of Common Schools in Upper Canada*, 13 & 14 Vict., Ch. 48, 1850.

⁴*An Act for the Further Improvement of Grammar Schools in Upper Canada*, 29 Vict., Ch. 23, S.P.C.

were declared to be counties for grammar school purposes, with the result that all trustees of grammar schools located in cities were henceforth appointed by the city councils concerned. Union boards were to be composed of all members of grammar and common school corporations.

22. In 1866, after his fourth and last series of county conventions and after his final visit to Europe, Ryerson drafted Bills which he hoped would result, if adopted, in an Act which might be the coping stone of the edifice of publicly supported education in Ontario. They contained ideas on the administration of education gained from 24 years of administrative experience. The draft of the Grammar School Bill of 1868, like the drafts of the Common School Bills of 1868 and 1870, embodied ideas which proved to be far in advance of the time. It proposed the dissolution of all grammar school boards in cities, towns, and incorporated villages. Elected boards of public school trustees were to administer both the common schools and the grammar schools. High school districts, to be formed by county councils, were to be composed of all or parts of one or more townships and villages, and to be administered by boards of trustees elected by the ratepayers of the districts. The Bill was withdrawn in 1869 and redrafted in 1870 to include a few changes intended to satisfy parliamentary critics. Public school boards in urban municipalities were to retain jurisdiction over both common and high schools, but provision was made for the addition to the elected board of a maximum of 4 members appointed by the municipal council. A similar clause with regard to elected high school boards in rural areas would have given the county council power to appoint 4 additional trustees to the elected board.

23. The school Act of 1871,¹ however, though in other matters standing as a landmark in Ontario educational history, bore little evidence of these advanced ideas regarding units of administration and local education authorities. Common schools and grammar schools in urban municipalities continued as before under different boards, the former elected, and the latter appointed. The only change was in name: "public" being substituted for "common", and "high" for "grammar". County councils were still empowered to form the whole or parts of one or more townships, towns, and villages into a high school district; but instead of an elective board, as Ryerson had wished, a board of 6 members appointed by the county council was set up as the local authority.

24. Owing to serious criticism by high school inspectors, the right to form union boards was withdrawn by the Act of 1874, but joint boards already in existence were permitted to continue and were known henceforth as boards of education.² The right to form union boards of education was restored in 1896.

25. No further changes of importance took place until 1896, when, in response to persistent demands from rural communities for improved

¹34 Vict., Ch. 33, S.O.

²Union boards of education.

facilities for secondary education, elementary school authorities were authorized to establish continuation classes.¹ These were recognized as continuation schools in 1908, and in the following year a comprehensive *Continuation Schools Act*² provided for two types of continuation school districts: those formed by one or more public school boards; and those formed by a county council. The boundaries of the first type were to be conterminous with those of the school section or sections comprising it. Where only one section was concerned, the public school board became the continuation school board. Where two or more sections were concerned, the board was made up of not more than two-thirds of the members of the public school boards establishing it. The second type, the district formed by a county council, might consist of either a town with or without parts of an adjoining township, a village with or without parts of an adjoining township, or a township. Even if there were two or more continuation schools in a district composed of a whole township, all were to be administered by one continuation school board. Boards of such "county continuation school districts" were to be composed of 7 members. Three were to be appointed by the county council, 3 by the local municipal council, and one either by the separate school board of a town or village or by the township council from among the separate school supporters of the township. Continuation schools proved to be popular and their number rapidly increased. In 1913, county continuation schools were declared to be high schools, and after that date no more such schools were established.

26. Despite the fact that between 1909 and 1949 the school law permitted a county to be constituted one high school district, governed by a board of 6 appointees of the county council, no such district was ever formed. County councils continued to have the right to appoint 3 of the members of high school boards in districts composed of municipalities not separated from the county, until 1938, when the number of county appointees was reduced to one, and the appointment was made permissive. The next year, however, a section identical with Section 13 (*a*) of the present *High Schools Act* was passed, whereby, if a majority of the members of the board were favourable, the county council was empowered to appoint 3 members.

27. In 1947³ the councils of two or more adjoining counties were permitted to form high school districts composed of the whole or parts of two or more municipalities situated within the counties concerned. The council of a city or separated town might discontinue its high school district and provide either for the inclusion of the city or separated town in a new high school district or for its addition to an existing one.

¹Continuation classes offered courses in grades IX and X, usually under a separate teacher, but sometimes under the supervision of the elementary school teacher in charge of the other grades of the school.

²9 Edw. VII, Ch. 90, S.O., 1909.

³11 Geo. VI, Ch. 42, Sec. 1, S.O.

Municipal Boards of Education

28. An Act permitting the election of municipal boards of education was first passed in 1903, although legislation allowing the formation of union boards of education dates back to 1853,¹ and Ryerson's draft Bill of 1868 contained provisions similar to those in the present *Boards of Education Act*. The Act of 1903 provided for the abolition, in cities with more than 100,000 population,² of the public school board, the high school board, and the board of management of technical schools. A board of education was to be formed, composed of 12 members, 10 elected by the general ratepayers of the city and 2 appointed by the separate school board.

29. In the following year permission to form boards of education was extended to the councils of cities under 100,000 population and to those of towns and villages not included as part of a high school district.³ Boards were to consist of members elected by the public school supporters and appointed by separate school boards, the numbers varying with the population of the municipalities.

30. The power to establish a municipal board of education was extended in 1909⁴ to the council of any urban municipality in which the high school district did not extend beyond the limits of the municipality. In 1911 an amendment required a favourable vote of the electors, following a decision by resolution of the council, to establish a municipal board of education. The power was later extended to the council and electors of a township which was a high school district.

31. In 1948, county councils were empowered, subject to the approval of the Minister, and on the request of the municipal council or councils concerned, to pass a by-law establishing a municipal board of education for a high school district.⁵ Such a district would contain all or part of two or more municipalities and would be conterminous with a township school area, or a township school area and one or more adjoining school sections, or two or more adjoining school sections. In the same year provision was made for the formation, on the authorization of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, of a municipal board of education for a high school district established by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council. In both of these latter cases no provision was made for a vote of the electors.

32. Since 1949 a municipal board of education may be formed by the by-law of a city, town, village, or township council without a vote of the electors.⁶

¹See *supra*.

²At that time this meant only Toronto.

³*An Act Respecting Boards of Education in Certain Cities, Towns and Villages*, 4 Edw. VII, Ch. 33, S.O., 1904.

⁴*An Act Respecting Boards of Education*, 9 Edw. VII, Ch. 94, Sec. 4, S.O.

⁵*An Act to Amend the Boards of Education Act*, 12 Geo. VI, Ch. 8, Sec. 3, S.O.

⁶*An Act to Amend the Boards of Education Act*, 13 Geo. VI, Ch. 8, Sec. 2, S.O.

THE MUNICIPAL STRUCTURE OF ONTARIO

33. In order to understand the present status of school units and boards in Ontario, it is necessary to know something of the municipal organization of the province. Southern Ontario¹ is sub-divided into 43 counties (some of which have been amalgamated for administrative purposes to form 38 administrative counties), 24 cities, and 7 separated towns. The cities and separated towns, although located within the counties, are separated for municipal purposes. Northern Ontario is divided into 11 territorial districts, which have no municipal status and therefore do not correspond to the counties of Southern Ontario.

34. Each county is further divided into a number of "local municipalities": in total, 93 towns, 146 villages, and 429 townships. In most cases, the villages and towns are located geographically within the area of a township, but municipally they are separated. Within the townships, however, there are some 185 "police villages", which, while they have special powers over such services as police and fire protection, are integral parts of the township for school purposes. Northern Ontario is largely composed of territory unorganized municipally, but it is divided into 11 districts for judicial purposes. Such organized local municipalities as do exist are autonomous.² In all, there are 5 cities, 46 towns, 10 villages, and 143 townships. Townships in Northern Ontario are considerably smaller than the average township in the southern part of the province. Most of them are six miles square.

35. The cities and separated towns in Southern Ontario and all municipalities in Northern Ontario are administered by councils, elected by the local ratepayers, which are responsible for all phases of local self-government with the exception of education.³ The towns, villages, and townships of Southern Ontario, also have elected councils which are responsible for most phases of local government. However, the county councils, which are composed of designated members of the councils of the towns, villages, and townships comprising the county, are responsible for certain matters of local government which are the common concern of all the municipalities within the county, such as highways, administration of justice, social services, grants for secondary education, and similar services.

36. Within recent years a new form of municipal organization known as an improvement district has been provided for in *The Municipal Act*. Such a district is governed by a board of trustees, appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council and vested with all the powers and duties of a council of a township and of any local board of a township.

¹See Chapter I.

²They are, however, subject to provincial authority as exercised by the Minister of Municipal Affairs.

³Such councils have certain powers even with regard to education, as outlined below.

37. Figures 1 and 2 show the municipal organization of the province. Figure 1 is a map of Hastings County in Eastern Ontario. The city of Belleville and the separated town of Trenton are located within the boundaries of the county but are not part of it municipally. The county municipality is composed of one town, Deseronto, 7 villages, 13 townships, and 5 unions of townships. These last, although each is composed of two or more geographical townships, are single corporations for municipal purposes. Each of these 21 municipalities is represented by one or more of its members on the Hastings County Council. Figure 2 is a map of the territorial district of Thunder Bay. It will be noted that well over half of the district has not yet been surveyed into townships. Of some 200 townships which have been laid out, only 12 are organized municipally. These 12 are administered by the township councils of Conmee, O'Connor, Paipoonge, Neebing, Shuniah, Nipigon, and Schreiber. The municipality of Neebing contains 4 townships, and that of Shuniah has 3. There are 2 cities (Fort William and Port Arthur), one incorporated town (Geraldton), and 3 improvement districts (Beardmore, Marathon, and Red Rock) in the district. The Department of Municipal Affairs acts in relation to the town and township municipalities as a county council does in Southern Ontario.

THE PRESENT STATUS OF LOCAL UNITS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION AND LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES IN ONTARIO

38. The present situation with respect to the constitution of local units of school administration and local education authorities is, to say the least, confusing. The number of types of units and the lack of correlation with municipal organization result in a situation where the exceptions are often more apparent than the general rule. The accompanying Figures and Tables serve to show the complex problem which the Commission has faced. But the Tables and Figures are not in themselves sufficient to permit of an assessment of the existing practice in a period characterized by the constant dissolution of units of one type and the formation of units of another type.

39. The units of school administration in Ontario can be classified in different ways: according to the type of municipality of which they are composed; according to the method of their creation; according to the number of pupils enrolled in their schools; according to their area; according to whether they are rural or urban; or according to the type and extent of education offered by the authority responsible. If we classify units on the basis of the type and extent of education offered, we find three chief classes: those for the administration of elementary education only (classified in Table 1); those for the administration of secondary education only (classified in Table 2); and those for the administration of both elementary and secondary education (classified in Table 3).

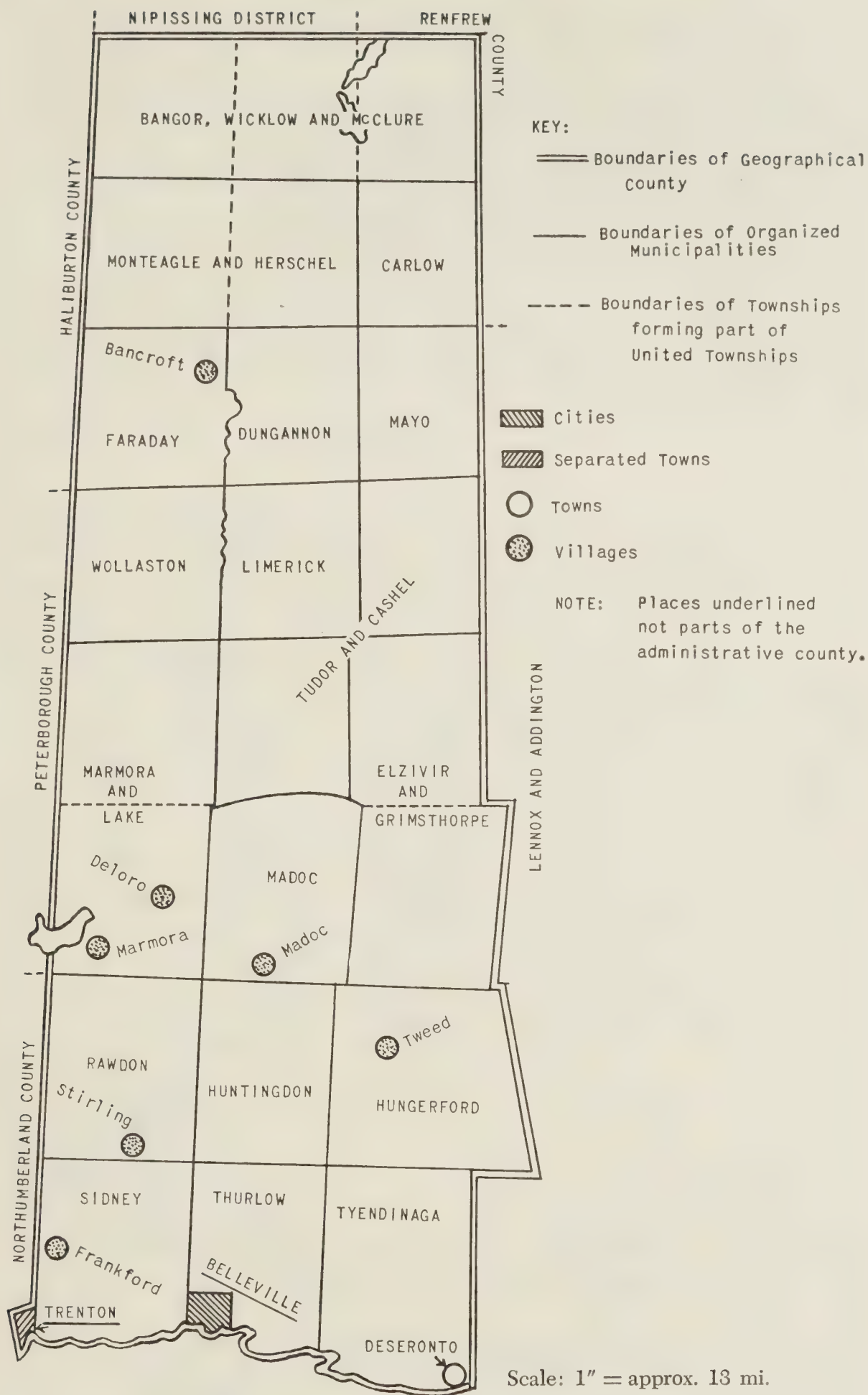


FIG. 1. MUNICIPAL ORGANIZATION OF THE COUNTY OF HASTINGS

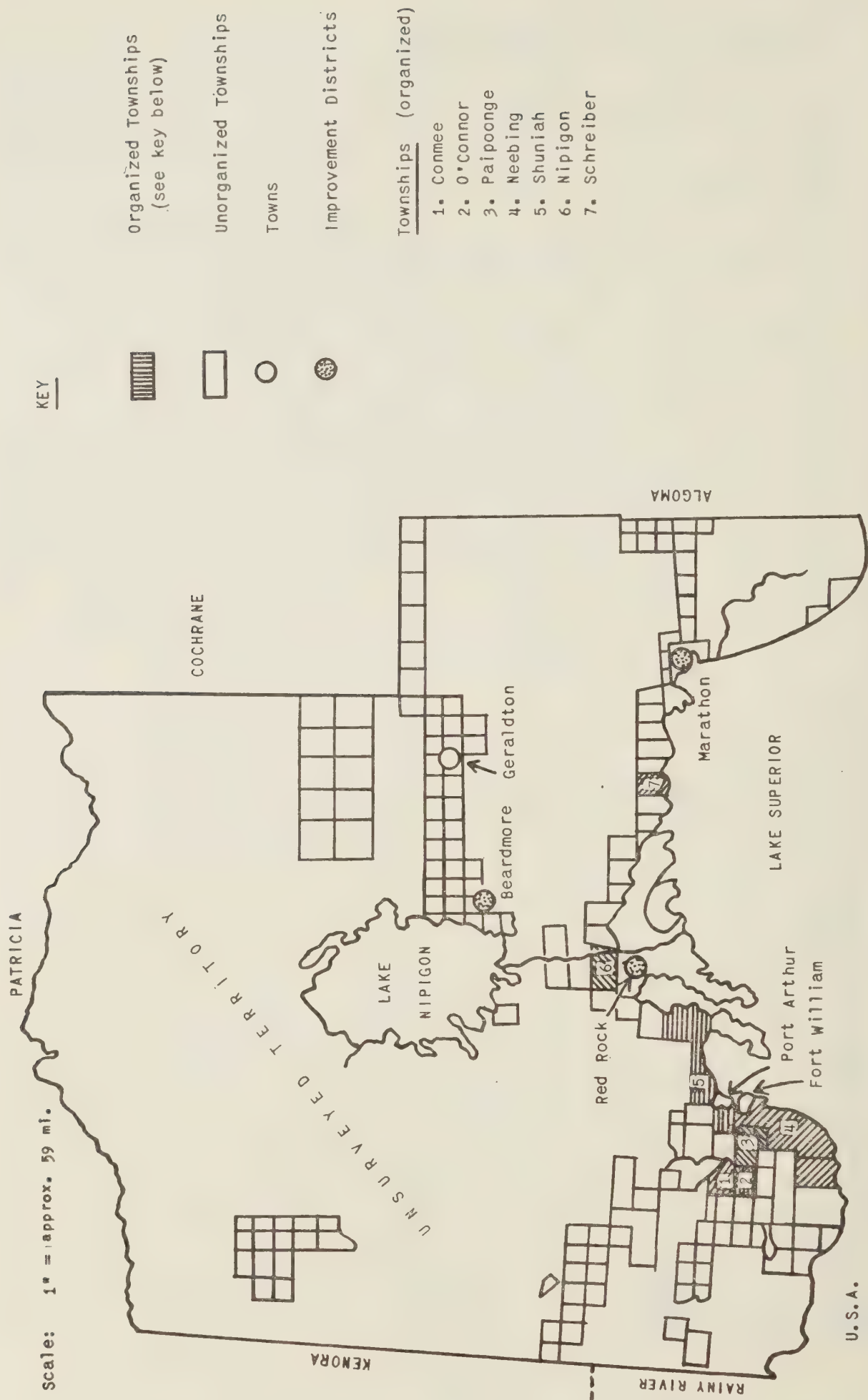


FIG. 2. MUNICIPAL ORGANIZATION OF THE TERRITORIAL DISTRICT OF THUNDER BAY

ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS AND LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES FOR
ELEMENTARY EDUCATION ONLY

40. Units for the administration of elementary education only, may be sub-divided into three classes: units for the administration of public school education only; "units" for the administration of Roman Catholic separate school education only; and units for the administration of Protestant separate school education only. In Table 1, these units are sub-classified according to whether they are rural or urban and according to the type of municipality or municipalities of which they are composed. We have included the separate school "units" in Table 1, in order that the complete list may be available in one place. Any discussion relative to them will appear in the chapter on separate schools.

*For Public School Education Only**(a) In Rural Areas*

41. The traditional unit for the administration of rural public school education has been the "school section". Township councils have been required to divide the area of the township into a number of public school sections, each usually having an area of about 6 square miles. Township councils are empowered to change the boundaries of school sections by amalgamating all, or parts, of two or more sections, or by sub-dividing a section into two or more new sections. In unorganized townships the inspector, subject to the approval of the Minister, is empowered to create school sections having a maximum length or breadth of 5 miles. Table 1 shows that in January, 1949, there were 2,149 rural school sections of these three types in existence in Ontario.

42. The educational affairs of each of these traditional small rural school sections are administered by a board, known as a "public school board of a rural school section", composed of 3 members elected by the qualified voters of the section. Members serve three-year terms, so arranged that one trustee is elected each year at the annual school meeting. Elections are by standing vote, unless a poll is demanded by any two electors; in the latter case voting is by secret ballot.

43. The Minister is empowered to designate any portion of lands held by the Crown in right of Canada or Ontario, or any portion of lands which are exempt from taxation for school purposes, as a rural school section, whether or not it is located in an organized municipality. There were 24 such sections in existence in January, 1949. A public school section of this type is administered by a public school board of 3 members appointed by the Minister; it has the same status as a public school board of a rural school section.

44. Although classed as administering elementary education only, public school boards of any of the three types of rural school sections mentioned

above may provide what is known as a fifth class for instruction in the work of grades IX and X.

45. Since 1850 there has been provision in the statutes for the union of all the school sections of a township into one section. The board of such a unit is commonly referred to as a "township school board". Such a board, since technically it has jurisdiction over a rural school section only, although

TABLE 1
UNITS FOR THE ADMINISTRATION OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION ONLY^a

PUBLIC					
RURAL			URBAN		
1. <i>School Sections</i>			1. <i>School Sections</i>		
(a) Rural public school sections composed of part of one township	2,149		(a) Union school sections ^b		
			(i) including a town		26
(b) Rural public school sections composed of all of one township	1		(ii) including a village		47
(c) Union school sections	588		(b) Consolidated sections		1
(d) Consolidated school sections	15				
(e) Township school areas	481		2. <i>Urban Municipalities</i>		
(f) Public school sections established by Minister	24		(a) Cities		6
2. <i>Improvement Districts</i>	12		(b) Separated towns		3
			(c) Towns		69
			(d) Villages		82
TOTAL RURAL	3,270		TOTAL URBAN		234
TOTAL PUBLIC: 3,504					
SEPARATE					
ROMAN CATHOLIC			PROTESTANT		
RURAL	URBAN		RURAL	URBAN	
1. "Sections" composed of part of one or more townships	517		1. Schools sections conterminous with public school sections	2	
2. Union "sections" (Operating more than one "section")	21				
TOTALS	538			2	
		135			2
TOTAL ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOL UNITS		673	TOTAL PROTESTANT SEPARATE SCHOOL UNITS		4
TOTAL SEPARATE: 677					
TOTAL ELEMENTARY ONLY: 4,181					

^aCompiled by the Commission from recent data (1948-49).

^bClassed also as urban municipalities.

a greatly enlarged one, would normally consist of 3 members elected at large by the qualified voters of the township. However, the township council may decide to provide for a board of 6 or more members, and can determine whether it is to be elected at large or by wards. In the latter case the number of wards is to be the same as the number of board members. Trustees serve overlapping terms of three years. The board of the Township of Morrison in the District of Muskoka is the only one still operating in Ontario.

46. Where it is necessary or advisable to create a school section from adjacent parts of two or more townships, the new section is known as a "union public school section", and is formed by the joint action of the councils of the townships concerned. At the present time there are 588 such rural union public school sections in operation. The board of the unit is popularly known as a "union public school board", but its official name is "The Board of Public School Trustees of Union School Section Number . . . in the . . .". Except in name, the board is the same in every respect as a public school board of a rural school section.

47. The development of "consolidated school sections" has been noted. Although most of these are classed as rural school sections, they are a distinct type of unit for the administration of elementary education. Table 1 shows that at present there are 15 rural consolidated school sections. Such a section is administered by a "Board of Trustees of the . . . Consolidated School" (inserting name of school), consisting of 5 members elected at large in the consolidated school section. Voting takes place at a special school election, and members serve overlapping terms of three years.

48. Rural public school sections, rural union school sections, and rural consolidated school sections are rapidly being replaced by "township school areas". By January 1, 1949, there had been formed 481 township school areas for the administration of elementary education only. These comprised over 3,000 former small school sections. In the counties and in organized townships of Northern Ontario, township school areas are formed by the township council without a vote being required in the sections concerned, although public meetings for discussion are usually held throughout the proposed area. In unorganized townships and unsurveyed territory in Northern Ontario, township school areas are formed by the inspector with the approval of the Minister. In this case, however, the consent of all rural school boards concerned is required. Union school sections may be included in a township school area only with the consent of the councils of the townships concerned.

49. Each of these 481 township school areas is administered by a board commonly known as a "township school area board", but which has the official title of "The Board of School Trustees of the Township School Area of . . .". Each board is composed of 5 members elected at large by secret ballot at the time of the regular municipal elections. Members serve for overlapping terms of two years.

50. Since the trustees of an improvement district have the powers "of any local board" of a township, they have the powers of a school board. Thus, the improvement district has become a unit of administration for public elementary schools. By January 1, 1949, there were 12 improvement districts functioning as township school areas. This is another case where appointed persons control the administration of public elementary schools.

(b) In Urban Communities

51. Although each city, town, and village has been established by law as a unit for the administration of public elementary education, not all urban municipalities have public school boards. Some, to be discussed later, operate their public schools together with their secondary schools under boards of education. Four villages have become integral parts of township school areas¹ and for educational purposes are classified as rural. On the other hand, 26 towns and 47 villages have formed union school sections by uniting with portions of surrounding townships. In such cases the rural parts of the union section are classified as urban. For educational purposes such an "urban union school section" is considered to be an urban municipality and is administered by a board which is similar to and is elected in the same way as a public school board of an urban municipality which is not a union school section.

52. There are 6 cities, 3 separated towns, 69 towns, and 82 villages which are units in themselves for the administration of elementary education only. Each is administered by an elected public school board the number of members of which depends upon the type of municipality and certain other factors, such as population and whether elections are at large or by wards.

53. The public school board of an urban municipality divided into wards consists of trustees elected on the basis of 2 from each ward into which the municipality is divided. Trustees serve two-year terms, so arranged that one trustee from each ward is elected each year. If the municipality is a city with a population over 100,000, the council may pass a by-law, after a favourable vote on a plebiscite held on the question, providing for the election of members of the public school board at large instead of by wards. Boards selected in such a way must consist of 9 members who serve overlapping three-year terms. In towns divided into wards boards may resolve to limit the number of trustees to 6. In such a case election is at large and each member serves a two-year term. Three new trustees are elected each year. In each of the three sub-types of boards mentioned the vote may be taken either at the time of the regular municipal election or at a special election.

54. The public school board of an urban municipality not divided into wards consists of 6 members elected at large. Members serve overlapping terms of two years.

¹One township area includes 2 villages.

ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS AND LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES FOR
SECONDARY EDUCATION ONLY

55. There are two types of administrative unit for secondary education only: "high school districts" and "continuation school districts". Table 2¹ shows that there are 160 of the former and 114 of the latter, a total of 274. High school and continuation school districts are classified according to the method of establishment and the number and type of municipalities comprising them.

High School Districts and Their Boards

56. High school districts are formed by one of four methods: by mandatory legislation; by county councils; by the joint action of the council of a city or separated town and the councils of one or more counties; or by the council of one or more municipalities in a territorial district. Originally, all cities and separated towns in the province—and for this purpose towns in the territorial districts were considered as separated towns—were created high school districts by *The High Schools Act*. Many of these cities and separated towns, however, have decided to operate their high schools and public elementary schools as a unit under boards of education. Only the cities of Ottawa, North Bay, Sudbury, and Cornwall remain high school districts for the administration of secondary education only. One of the separated towns of Southern Ontario and 11 towns in Northern Ontario are in the same category.

57. Of the total of 152 high school districts, 133 have been created by the action of one or more county councils. In the counties, high school districts may be established, subject to the approval of the Minister of Education, by by-laws of a county council or by by-law of the councils of two or more adjacent counties. They may be composed of any portion of the county or counties with or without a city or separated town. The council or councils may in like manner discontinue any high school district; such a by-law passed before July 1st in any year becomes effective on January 1st of the succeeding year. Many of these districts consist of single municipalities—town, village, or township. They may, however, overlap municipal or even county boundaries. The Act, indeed, would permit a whole county or two or more counties to be formed into one high school district.

58. Some high school districts have been formed for the purpose of raising money to pay tuition and transportation costs of pupils attending schools in other districts. There are three types of such districts—urban, suburban, and rural. The first are usually small towns or villages close to large cities or towns; the second are new large high school districts, formed on the recommendation of county consultative committees, which, although they may eventually operate their own schools, at present transport their pupils to the cities located within their districts; the third are in the three

¹See page 225.

counties of Brant, Waterloo, and Wentworth, where the county councils have established each township as a high school district, thus avoiding the necessity of making provision for "county pupils".

59. Until 1945, secondary school units included only a small fraction of the area of the province, even in the thickly settled southern peninsula, since the great majority of such units were urban municipalities. In 1944, however, a beginning was made toward the establishment of "larger high school districts". These had as their pivotal points a town or village having a high or continuation school. Two such units were set up in Kent County in 1944. In 1945 Essex County established six, thereby including almost all the county. A formula began to develop for the creation of such districts. This called for a minimum local assessment of \$5,000,000 and a minimum population of 5,000 or 10,000 depending on density of population. The boundaries of such districts were to be determined by the county council after a study had been made and a report had been submitted by a consultative committee composed of the local public school inspector, an officer appointed by the Department of Education, and 3 members appointed by the council.

60. In 1946, 31 districts were formed in the counties of Kent, Lambton, Middlesex, Huron, Perth, Halton, Hastings, and Carleton. The most common type of larger high school district operating a school is composed of one or more villages plus one or more towns and all or part of one or more townships. There were 22 districts of this type on January 1, 1949. There were also 21 districts containing one town plus all or part of more than one township; there were 13 containing more than one village plus all or part of one or more townships; and there were 16 containing one village plus all or part of one or more townships. Thus, the great majority of the villages and towns in Southern Ontario are now included in the larger high school districts. In fact, only 8 towns and 11 villages continue to be high school districts. Twenty-three townships have been established as high school districts, although 16 of them do not operate schools. The entire County of Glengarry, which consists of one town, 2 villages, and 4 townships, has been created a high school district by the council of the United Counties of Stormont, Dundas, and Glengarry. This is the only case of an entire county being the basic unit of administration for school purposes, although the County of Frontenac, with the exception of one township (Wolfe Island), is also a high school district. In the latter county, however, there are no incorporated towns or villages.

61. Two larger high school districts have been formed by the joint action of the council of a separated town and the council or councils of adjoining counties. The two cities of Kitchener and Waterloo comprise one high school district.

62. In Northern Ontario, high school districts are created at the present time by the action of one or more municipal councils. There are, however,

only 8 high school districts which have been formed in this way—3 townships, one village, 3 districts each composed of a town and all or part of one or more townships, and one district composed of 2 towns.

63. A high school district for the administration of only secondary education may be in charge of any one of four types of boards: a “high school board”; a “district high school board”; a “collegiate institute board”; or a “district collegiate institute board”. The only difference between a collegiate institute board and a high school board is that the former operates one or more collegiate institutes. High school boards and collegiate institute boards administer secondary education in high school districts composed of one municipality only. District high school and district collegiate institute boards control the administration of secondary education in high school districts composed of more than one municipality.

64. The high school or collegiate institute board of a city or separated town is composed of 6 members appointed by the city or town council. Each trustee serves a three-year term; 2 trustees retire and 2 are appointed each year, so that terms are overlapping. The public school board and the separate school board (if any) may each appoint one member to the high school or collegiate institute board, to hold office for one year only. If the high school or collegiate institute board notifies the county clerk that the school facilities are open to county pupils on the same terms as high schools in municipalities not separated from the county, the county council may appoint one additional trustee, to serve a one-year term. If the high school or collegiate institute board passes a motion of authorization, the county council may appoint 3 additional members instead of one, to serve for three-year overlapping terms. Thus, the high school or collegiate institute board of a city or separated town could consist of from 6 to 11 members inclusive.

65. The high school or collegiate institute board of a high school district comprising one municipality other than a city or separated town is composed of 3 trustees appointed by the council of the municipality concerned. Each year one of these retires and a new trustee is appointed. In the counties the board may be increased by the appointment of a trustee by the county council, to hold office for one year. If the board so determines, the county council may appoint 3 trustees, to serve overlapping terms of three years. There may be one, but only one, trustee (not a member of the appointing board) appointed by each of the following:

- (1) The public school board operating a school or schools within the high school district and (where there is more than one such board) having the highest average attendance of pupils below grade IX for the preceding year.
- (2) The board of separate school trustees operating a school within the high school district and (where there is more than one such board) having the highest average attendance of pupils below grade IX for the preceding year.

The appointment of public and separate school representatives is on an annual basis. Thus a high school or collegiate institute board in a municipality not separated from a county for municipal purposes has a minimum size of 3 members and a maximum of 8 and could have any intermediate number of members. The board of a municipality (other than a city) in a territorial district can have 3, 4, or 5 members. An exception to the general rule of appointed high school and collegiate institute boards is to be found in the high school district of Teck Township where, by special Act, the collegiate institute and vocational school in Kirkland Lake is administered by an elected board. We have been informed that this arrangement has proved to be eminently satisfactory.

66. District high school and district collegiate institute boards vary in composition according to whether the district is composed of: 2 municipalities other than cities and separated towns or parts of them; more than 2 municipalities other than cities and separated towns or parts of them; or a city or separated town and all or part of one or more other municipalities. Each municipality, or part thereof assessed for \$50,000 or more, in a high school district is represented by from one to 6 members, depending on its population and on the number and status of the municipalities concerned. The appointment of members by public school boards, separate school boards, and county councils is also authorized.

Continuation School Districts and Their Boards

67. Continuation school districts are of two types: those established by one elementary school authority; and those established by an agreement between two or more such authorities. The authorities in charge of continuation school districts are usually referred to as "continuation school boards" although, according to *The Continuation Schools Act*, such an authority is called "The Board of Trustees of the Continuation School of . . ." Table 2 shows that in January, 1949, there were 108 continuation school districts each established by one authority, and 6 established by two or more authorities. Of the continuation school districts established by one public elementary school authority, 25 consist of single rural public school sections not within a township school area; 24 consist of single public school sections within a township area; 24 are villages; 10 are towns; 9 are township school areas; 7 are rural union school sections; and 6 are urban union school sections. One improvement district¹ also functions as a continuation school district. Two continuation school districts have been established in towns² by Roman Catholic separate school authorities.

68. At the present time there are only four continuation school districts that have been created by two or more elementary school authorities: Dublin, composed of one public school section and one Roman Catholic separate school "section"; Lafontaine, composed of one township school area and one Roman Catholic separate school "section"; Paincourt,

¹Marathon.

²Eganville and Westport.

TABLE 2

UNITS FOR THE ADMINISTRATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION ONLY^a

HIGH SCHOOL DISTRICTS		CONTINUATION SCHOOL DISTRICTS	
Composition	Total	Composition	Total
1. CREATED BY LEGISLATION		1. CREATED BY ONE PUBLIC	
(a) Cities	4	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AUTHORITY	
(b) Separated towns	12	(a) One town	10
	— 16	(b) One village	24
2. CREATED BY COUNTY COUNCILS		(c) One rural public school	
(a) One town	8	section	25
(b) One village	11	(d) One township school area	9
(c) One township	23	(e) One consolidated school	
(d) Part of one township	4	section	2
(e) One rural school section	2	(f) One rural union school	
(f) All or part of more than one		section	7
township	10	(g) One rural public school	
(g) One town plus all or part of		section in a township school	
one or more townships	21	area	24
(h) One village plus all or part of		(h) One improvement district	1
one or more townships	16	(i) One village plus one or more	
(i) A whole county	1	rural school sections	5
(j) A whole county minus one		(j) One town plus one or more	
township	1	rural school sections	1
(k) More than one town plus			— 108
townships	1	2. CREATED BY ONE SEPARATE	
(l) More than one village plus		ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AUTHORITY	
townships	13	One town	2
(m) One or more towns, one or			— 2
more villages, and all or part			
of one or more townships	22		
	— 133	3. CREATED BY MORE THAN ONE	
3. CREATED BY JOINT ACTION OF		ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AUTHORITY	
THE COUNCILS OF A CITY OR		(a) One public school section and	
SEPARATED TOWN AND ONE OR		one Roman Catholic separate	
MORE CITIES, SEPARATED		school "section"	1
TOWNS OR COUNTIES		(b) One township school area and	
(a) One separated town and		one Roman Catholic separate	
parts of three counties	1	school "section"	1
(b) One separated town and		(c) One township school area and	
parts of a county	1	one Roman Catholic separate	
(c) Two cities	1	school union "section"	1
	— 3	(d) Part of a township school	
4. CREATED BY ONE OR MORE		area and one public school	
MUNICIPAL COUNCILS IN		section	1
UNORGANIZED TERRITORY			— 4
(a) One town	1		
(b) One village	1		
(c) One township	3		
(d) One town plus all or part of			
one or more townships	3		
	— 8		
TOTAL HIGH SCHOOL DISTRICTS	160	TOTAL CONTINUATION SCHOOL	
		DISTRICTS	114

TOTAL SECONDARY ONLY: 274

^aCompiled by the Commission from recent data (1948-49).

consisting of one township school area and one Roman Catholic separate school union "section"; and St. George, composed of part of a township school area and the whole of one public school section not in the township school area.

69. The board of trustees of a continuation school established by one elementary school authority consists of the public or separate elementary school board plus one member appointed, if so desired, by the county council or councils of the county or counties in which the continuation school is situated.

70. Where the continuation school district is a part of a township school area, the ratepayers of the former section or sections composing the district elect a continuation school board in the same way that they elected the public school board prior to the formation of the township school area. Thus, in 24 continuation school districts we find the phenomenon of an entirely elected board for the administration of secondary education only.

71. The continuation school district of Marathon is administered by the board of trustees of the improvement district.

72. The board of trustees of a continuation school in a continuation school district composed of one or more public school sections and one or more separate school "sections" is appointed by the elementary school boards concerned, and is composed of not more than two-thirds of the members of each board. The provision for appointees of county councils applies also in this case. The size of the board may, therefore, vary.

73. The board of trustees of a continuation school in a continuation school district formed of part of a township school area and one or more public school sections and one or more separate school "sections" outside of the township school area is composed of the township school area board, 2 members appointed by each public school board outside the township school area, and 2 members appointed by each separate school board.

74. The board of trustees of a continuation school in a continuation school district composed of part of a township school area and one or more separate school "sections" consists of either (a) the township school area board and 2 members of the board of each separate school "section" forming a part of the continuation school district, or (b) members selected by the ratepayers of the former school section or sections and members appointed by the separate school board or boards.

ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS AND LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES FOR BOTH PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

75. No units have been formed specifically for the purpose of administering public elementary and secondary education. The provisions in the Acts relate only to the establishment of local education authorities for the administration of both public elementary and secondary education. Strictly

speaking, such an authority, called a board of education, has jurisdiction over a high school district and the public school unit which is conterminous with it. For the purposes of this chapter, however, and for Table 3, we have considered such conterminous units as single units for the administration of both public elementary and secondary education.

TABLE 3
UNITS FOR THE ADMINISTRATION OF PUBLIC ELEMENTARY
AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS^a

Composition	Total
1. UNITS CREATED PURSUANT TO PROVISIONS OF <i>The Boards of Education Act</i>	
(a) One city	23
(b) One separated town	4
(c) One town	29
(d) One village	9
(e) One union public school section containing a town	8
(f) One union public school section containing a village	6
	— 79
2. CREATED BY SPECIAL ACT	
One township	4
	— 4
3. CREATED BY THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR IN COUNCIL	
One township	1
	— 1
	—
TOTAL UNITS	84

^aCompiled by the Commission from recent data (1948-49).

76. In January, 1949, there were 84 boards of education operating in the province. Of these, 23 were in cities, 4 in separated towns, 29 in towns, 9 in villages, 8 in union public school sections containing a town, and 6 in union public school sections containing a village. These 79 boards were created either by joint action of the public and high school boards of the municipality or by the municipal council after a favourable vote on a plebiscite held on the matter. Four boards of education were created by private Acts and are in single townships. The one remaining board of education was established by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council and consists of the Township of Merritt in the District of Sudbury.

77. There are two distinct types of authority having jurisdiction over public elementary and secondary education: "union boards of education", and "municipal boards of education".

Union Boards of Education

78. A union board of education may be formed by uniting the high school board of a high school district (composed of a municipality, a part of a municipality, or two or more municipalities or parts thereof) and the board of public school trustees of a school section (composed of the same area). This union may be effected by filing with the clerk of the municipi-

pality resolutions providing for such union passed at special meetings of each of the boards concerned. When such a board has been formed, the members continue to be appointed or elected in the same manner as were the members of the boards of the high school district and public school unit. Thus, the number of members will vary, since such a board can be formed by combining many different types of high school and public school boards. The minimum mandatory number of members would be 6, since the smallest public school or high school board has 3 members. In addition to the required number of members, provision is made for additional members as follows: one to 3 appointed by the county council; one appointed by the public school board; one appointed by the separate school board, if any. The terms of office of members of a union board of education vary from one to three years, depending upon whether they are appointed or elected. Special school elections may be held, or members may be elected at the same time as the municipal council.

Municipal Boards of Education

79. The municipal board of education is so named because it is established after a resolution by a municipal council declaring its formation expedient. In the case of municipal councils from 1911 to 1949, a favourable vote of the electors was required on the question "Are you in favour of the formation of a Municipal Board of Education?"; but since 1949 a by-law of the municipality has sufficed. The consent of the existing high school and public school boards is not required. There are 2 chief types of municipal boards of education, depending on whether the board has jurisdiction in one municipality or in more than one. In the latter case it is known as a district board of education.

80. The board of education (municipal) in a city having a population of more than 200,000 (Toronto) consists of 2 members from each ward, elected by the voters in the ward, plus 2 members appointed by the separate school authority. Members serve for one year only and are elected at the regular municipal election.

81. The board of education (municipal) in a city having a population between 50,000 and 200,000 consists, according to statute, of 14 members, 12 elected at large at the regular municipal elections and 2 appointed by the separate school board of the city. If, by vote of the ratepayers, election is by wards, the board consists of 2 members from each ward. However, both cities in this population range which have municipal boards of education have had special Acts passed providing for 7-man boards.

82. The board of education (municipal) in a city having a population of less than 50,000 consists of 10 members, 9 elected at large at the regular municipal election and one appointed by the separate school board. Members normally serve a two-year term, but they serve only one year following a favourable vote of the electorate on the question "Are you in favour of the

annual election of the members of the Board of Education?" In the case of a two-year term, half the board retires each year.

83. The board of education (municipal) in a town, village, or township consists of 8 members, 7 elected at large and one appointed by the separate school board. Provisions relating to the term of office are the same as those given in the preceding paragraph.

84. The district board of education (municipal) having jurisdiction in all or part¹ of two municipalities is composed as follows: 2 members elected by a municipality having a population of less than 1,000; 3 by one having a population of 1,000 to 2,999; 4 by one having a population of 3,000 to 5,999; 5 by one having a population of 6,000 or more. Additional members may be appointed as follows:

- (1) One by the separate school board having the largest average daily attendance of pupils at a school or schools within the area under the jurisdiction of the board of education.
- (2) One by the council of the county having the largest population within the jurisdiction of the board of education.

Appointed members serve one-year terms only. Elected members serve overlapping terms of two years. Trustees are elected at regular municipal elections.

85. A district board of education (municipal) having jurisdiction in all or part¹ of three or more municipalities is composed as follows: one member elected from a municipality or part thereof having a population of less than 1,000; 2 from one having a population of 1,000 to 2,999; 3 from one with 3,000 to 5,999; 4 from one with 6,000 to 9,999; 5 from one with 10,000 or more. Provision is made for additional members as outlined in the preceding paragraph.

COUNTIES AND LOCAL MUNICIPALITIES AND THEIR COUNCILS AS LOCAL UNITS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION AND LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES

86. It is not generally realized that the counties, townships, cities, towns, and villages of the province and the councils of these municipalities function, respectively, as intermediate local units of school administration and intermediate local education authorities for certain phases of education.

The County Council as an Intermediate Education Authority

87. Each of the 38 county councils of the province functions as an intermediate education authority with the following powers:

- (1) Either by itself or in conjunction with the councils of one or more cities, separated towns, or counties, to establish, discontinue, enlarge, and divide high school districts, subject to the prior approval of the Minister.

¹A part of a municipality which is assessed for school purposes in the high school district for less than \$50,000 is not deemed to be a municipality for the purpose of appointing members to the municipal board of education.

- (2) To appoint a trustee or trustees to each board of education, district board of education, high school, district high school, collegiate institute, and district collegiate institute board, and one member to each continuation school board, located within the county but not within a municipality separated from the county for municipal purposes.
- (3) To appoint one trustee to the board of education, district board of education, high school, district high school, collegiate institute, or district collegiate institute board of a city or separated town whose board has notified the county clerk that the high school or collegiate institute is open to county pupils on the same terms as high schools in municipalities not separated from the county.
- (4) To establish a district board of education (municipal) at the request of all municipalities concerned.
- (5) To levy and collect as part of the county rates the net cost of the education of county pupils attending a high school or a grade A or grade B continuation school in the county.
- (6) To pay out of its general funds the sum of \$500 per annum to the board of each high school within the county where an agricultural department is established by the Minister, such sum to be chargeable to the general county levy.
- (7) To establish a consultative committee, consisting of a public school inspector, an officer appointed by the Department, and 3 members appointed by the council, for the purpose of reporting upon petitions for the setting up of new high school districts or the modification or alteration of the boundaries of existing districts.
- (8) To levy and collect for apportionment among all the high schools of the county such further sums as it may deem expedient for the maintenance and permanent improvement of high schools.
- (9) To grant additional aid to any one or more of the high schools in the county without making a similar provision for the other high schools therein.
- (10) To appoint arbitrators to make an award in relation to the reorganization of the boundaries of public school sections and union school sections in a township.

88. The county is to a limited extent an attendance area for secondary school purposes; any county pupil has the right to attend any high school or continuation school in the county.

Resident, County, and Non-resident Pupils

89. The fact that not all the area of the province is included in high or continuation school districts has led to the classification of secondary school pupils as resident, non-resident, and county pupils. From the standpoint of the board of the school attended, pupils are classed as:

- (a) Resident pupils

- (i) if they reside with their parents or guardians within the limits of the high school district, except when the parent or guardian resides on land which is exempt from taxation for school purposes and does not pay taxes for school purposes in a municipality within the district, or
- (ii) if their parents or guardians are assessed in the district for an amount equal to the average assessment of the ratepayers of the district;
- (b) county pupils
 - (i) if they reside with their parents or guardians in a part of the county not within a secondary school district, provided their parents or guardians are school ratepayers in some municipality in the county;
- (c) non-resident pupils
 - (i) if they reside on land exempt from taxation for school purposes, provided their parents or guardians do not pay taxes for school purposes in any municipality in the county, or
 - (ii) if they are attending a school in a high school district other than one which they are entitled to attend as resident or county pupils.

90. These definitions may be made clearer by reference to Figure 3. E is a county which contains a city (A), a high school district (D), and a continuation school district (C). Resident pupils, indicated by r's, are those residing in districts A, C, and D. There is one resident pupil of D (crd) who resides in the county, but whose parents own property in D assessed for at least the average assessment of ratepayers in D. He can attend school in D as either a county or resident pupil. There is a resident pupil of A (cra) who lives in the county but is a resident pupil of A because his father is assessed for property in A sufficient in amount to qualify. He can thus attend school in A as a resident pupil or in C or D as a county pupil. County pupils, indicated by c's, are those living in that part of the county which is outside the city and other secondary school districts. They may attend schools in either C or D as county pupils. That section of the county marked B is Dominion Government property and as such is not taxable for school purposes. Thus the pupils living there, otherwise county pupils, must be classed as non-resident pupils (nr). They must pay fees to attend any secondary school. There is another type of non-resident pupil. County pupils attending school in A would be non-resident pupils of A, as would resident pupils of C or D attending school in A. Similarly, resident pupils of C would become non-resident pupils of D if they were to attend school in that district.

City, Town, and Village Councils as Intermediate Local Education Authorities

91. City and separated town councils are intermediate authorities for the administration of the following educational matters:

Key

A - City
 B - Dominion Government property
 C - Continuation school district
 D - High school district
 E - County

r - Resident pupil
 c - County pupil
 nr - Non-resident pupil
 cra - County pupil and resident pupil of A
 crd - County pupil and resident pupil of D

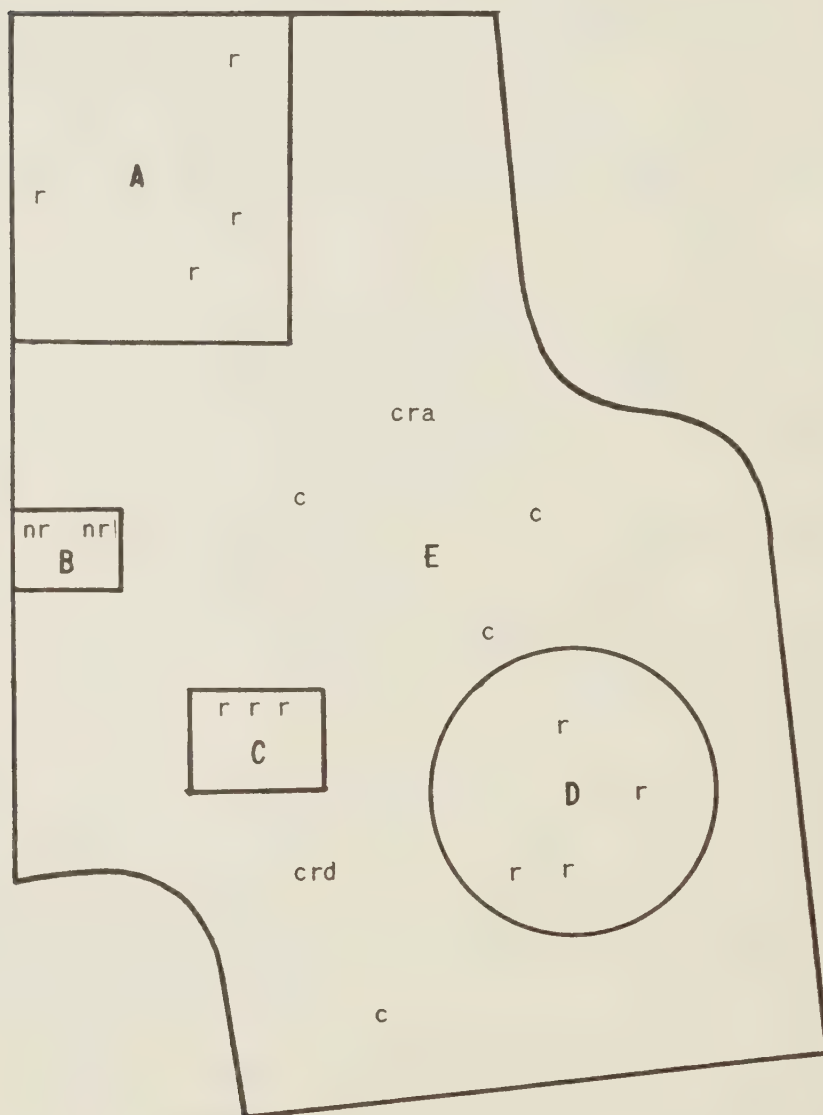


FIG. 3. DIAGRAM ILLUSTRATING DEFINITIONS OF COUNTY, RESIDENT AND NON-RESIDENT PUPILS

- (1) To discontinue the high school district located in a city or separated town and to add it to a part of a county to form a new high school district.
- (2) To appoint trustees to high school and collegiate institute boards and to union boards of education.
- (3) Through the sale of debentures, to finance capital expenditures of the local education authorities functioning within the city or separated town.
- (4) At the request of a local education authority having proper jurisdiction, to levy and collect rates to finance the general programme of education in the elementary and secondary schools of the city or separated town.
- (5) To create a municipal board of education in the city or separated town, with the approval of the Minister, when it deems such a course expedient.

92. The council of a town or village not separated from a county for municipal purposes is an intermediate authority for the administration of the following aspects of education:

- (1) To appoint one to three members, as the case may be, to the high school or collegiate institute board or to the union board of education of the district of which the town or village forms all or part.
- (2) To establish or dissolve a municipal board of education where the high school district is conterminous with the public school unit.
- (3) Through the sale of debentures, to finance its share of the capital expenditures of elementary and secondary school boards in charge of school units all or part of which are located within the town or village.
- (4) At the request of a local education authority having proper jurisdiction, to levy and collect rates to finance the general programme of education in the elementary and secondary schools of the town or village.
- (5) To recommend to the council of the county in which the town or village is located the establishment of a municipal board of education for a high school district part of which is composed of the town or village.

93. The council of a town or village in a territorial district functions as an intermediate authority for the administration of the following aspects of education:

- (1) To establish a high school district either by itself or in conjunction with one or more other such councils.
- (2) To appoint trustees to the board of such districts.
- (3) To establish a municipal board of education for any high school district located in whole or in part within its boundaries.
- (4) Through the sale of debentures, to finance its share of the capital expenditures of elementary and secondary school boards in charge of school units all or part of which are located within the town or village.
- (5) At the request of a local education authority having proper jurisdiction,

to levy and collect rates to finance the general programme of education in the elementary and secondary schools of the town or village.

94. The council of a township in a county is an intermediate local education authority for the administration of the following aspects of education:

- (1) To divide the township into public school sections.
- (2) To alter the boundaries of school sections.
- (3) To establish township school areas by by-law passed by a majority of the total number of its members.
- (4) To add a section or a union school section to an established township school area.
- (5) With the approval of the Minister, to establish a municipal board of education for the township if it constitutes one high school district.
- (6) To submit to the county council a resolution declaring it to be expedient to form a municipal board of education for a high school district part of which is located in the township.
- (7) Through the sale of debentures, to finance its share of the capital expenditures of public elementary and secondary school boards having jurisdiction within the township.
- (8) To audit the accounts of township school area boards.
- (9) At the request of local education authorities having proper jurisdiction, to levy and collect rates within the township to finance the general programme of education in the elementary and secondary schools of the township.
- (10) To make grants to public elementary school boards and to continuation school boards.
- (11) To appoint public school trustees where the ratepayers fail to elect them.
- (12) To pay grants to rural school boards, based on teachers' salaries in rural schools.
- (13) To appoint and pay school attendance officers.

95. The council of an organized township in that part of Ontario not divided into counties is an intermediate local education authority for the administration of the same aspects of education as is that of a township in a county, except with respect to those outlined in items (5) and (6) of the preceding paragraph. In addition, it may exercise the following powers with respect to education:

- (1) To establish a high school district or districts, either by itself or in conjunction with one or more other municipalities in a territorial district.
- (2) To enlarge or dissolve a high school district located all or in part within the boundaries of the township.
- (3) To appoint high school and collegiate institute trustees.
- (4) Subject to the approval of the Minister, to establish a municipal board of education, either by itself or in conjunction with one or more adjacent municipalities.

COMPLEXITY OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNIT ORGANIZATION IN ONTARIO

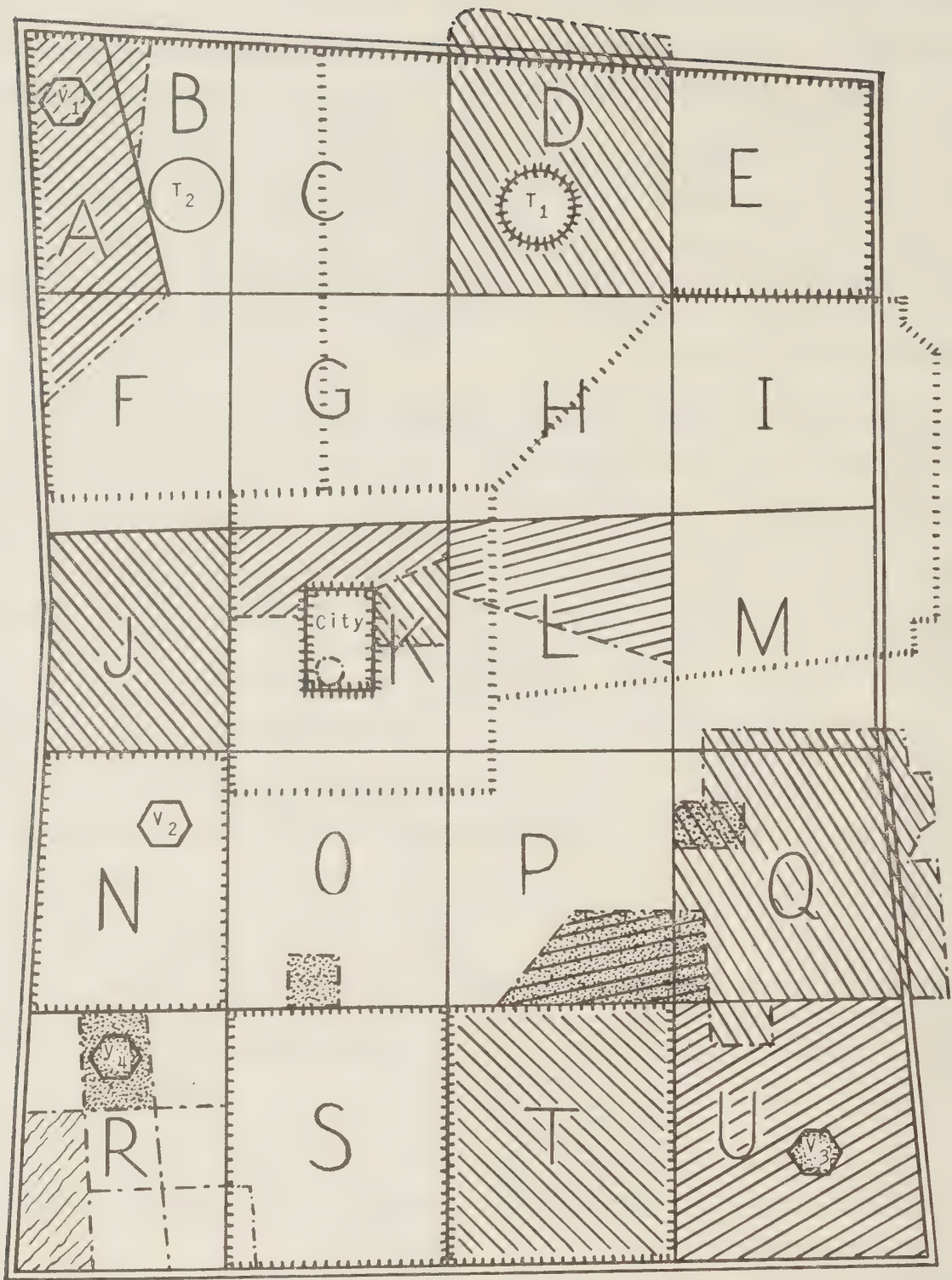
96. The transitional nature of the current organization of Ontario counties for both elementary and secondary education makes it impossible to indicate one county as "typical". Figure 4 represents an imaginary county in which are shown all types of school administrative units found in Southern Ontario. It illustrates the bewilderingly complex nature of the administrative organization which has developed through the many relatively minor changes in Acts and regulations. The urgent need for comprehensive reorganization is obvious.

97. The county represented by the map contains one city, which is separated from it for all municipal and school purposes. This city is an intermediate unit of administration for both public elementary and secondary education and has been created by law as a high school district and as a public school unit. The remainder of the county, known as the administrative county, is one intermediate unit for secondary education. It contains 2 towns (T1 and T2), 4 villages (V1, V2, V3, and V4), and 21 townships (A to U), which are intermediate units for secondary education and also for public elementary education. The school section boundaries are indicated for one township (R). If there were a separated town in this county, it would be similar in every way to the city. Located within the city but on property which does not pay taxes for school purposes is a rural public school section created by the Minister. The two towns were both originally created high school districts by the county council. Town 1 continues to be a high school district; town 2 has been joined with village 1, townships A and B, and parts of townships C, F, and G to form a larger high school district. Both towns are units for elementary education. Village 2 has been united with the surrounding township (N), to form a larger high school district. Other larger high school districts created by the county council on the recommendation of the consultative committee are composed as follows:

- (a) townships D, E, and parts of C, G, and H;
- (b) township I, parts of townships H, L, and M, and part of the adjoining county (created by joint action of the councils of the counties concerned);
- (c) township K, and parts of townships G, H, L, O, and P (this high school district does not operate a school, but pays the tuition and transportation costs of its pupils attending school in the city);
- (d) township S; and
- (e) township T.

There are five continuation school districts composed as follows:

- (a) village 3;
- (b) one public school section in township O;
- (c) the union public school section made up of village 4 and the surrounding public school section in township R;



LEGEND:

County boundaries

Township boundaries

School section boundaries

High school district boundaries

Township school areas or township school boards

Continuation school districts

Consolidated school sections

Villages

Towns

FIG. 4. IMAGINARY ONTARIO COUNTY SHOWING ALL TYPES OF SCHOOL UNITS

- (d) part of the township school area which is largely in township Q;
and
- (e) all the township school area which is partly in township Q and partly in township P.

All secondary school pupils in the remaining parts of the county (that is, not in one of these 13 secondary school units) would be "county" pupils and as such would be entitled to attend secondary school in any of the 13 secondary school districts in the county. Pupils from any of these secondary school districts could attend a high school in the city or a high or continuation school in any of the other secondary school districts as "non-resident" pupils. This would also be the status of "county" pupils who attended school in the city. There are 9 township school areas created by the councils of the township or townships in which they are located (top to bottom, left to right, in the diagram), formed as follows:

- (a) village 1, township A, and parts of townships B and F (this township school area is classed as a rural school unit);
- (b)(c) suburban areas, parts of township K, on the outskirts of the city;
- (d) township D and part of a township of a neighbouring county;
- (e) part of township L;
- (f) parts of townships P and Q;
- (g) all of township T;
- (h) parts of townships M, Q, and U and of two townships in the neighbouring county; and
- (i) part of township U.

These township school areas operate an average of five elementary schools each, most of them one-teacher schools. There is one township, J, which is a single unit for elementary school purposes, though it is not a township school area. It is operated by a township school board. Villages 2 and 3 are units for elementary schools. Village 4 together with the adjoining public school section forms a union public school section. The remaining portion of the county, exclusive of township school areas, towns, and villages, is divided into approximately 85 public school sections each with an area of about 6 square miles. These sections are indicated only in township R. The section in the lower right hand corner of that township includes a part of township S; this makes it a union public school section. Originally, there were two sections in the lower left hand corner of this township, but these were amalgamated by consent of the ratepayers of both sections to form a consolidated school section.

CHAPTER IX

LOCAL SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION UNDER OTHER JURISDICTIONS

1. As Egerton Ryerson did more than a century ago, we have examined the procedures and principles relating to educational administration in other democratic societies so that we might reap the benefit of their experimentation and experience. We have confined our studies to the English-speaking world, in particular to those parts which operate under decentralized systems of educational administration, since we have already affirmed our conviction that our recommendations should be directed toward decentralization in administration. We have looked closely at Great Britain because we are a part of its tradition, and at the United States because of its influence on educational thought and the similarity of its educational procedure and terminology to our own.

UNITS AND BOARDS IN ENGLAND AND WALES

2. It is easy to state simply, as is often done, that in England there are only 146 education authorities for a community of some fifty million people. But such a statement carries with it inferences which are not substantiated by a close examination of the system. While it is true that the county council is the local education authority for the whole county except county boroughs (which are not part of the county for municipal purposes), a further delegation prevails within the county. The county council, as the local education authority, is required to make schemes of divisional administration so that the functions of the local education authority "will be exercised with due regard to the circumstances affecting different parts of their areas and with the co-operation of persons having special knowledge of such circumstances."¹ The law further provides, however, that the council of any borough or urban district having a population of not less than 60,000 or a school enrolment of not less than 7,000 elementary school pupils may petition the Minister to be excepted from any such scheme of divisional administration. Thus, the county council, although it is the basic local edu-

¹*Education Act, 1944*, 7 & 8 Geo. 6, Ch. 31, First Schedule, Part III, London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, p. 89.

cation authority, delegates such duties and powers relating to primary and secondary education as it deems expedient to the executives of a number of minor authorities subordinate to it and administering various phases of education in the light of local circumstances and problems.

Internal Organization and Administration of a County Education Authority¹

3. The administrative organization of an English county education authority is shown diagrammatically in Figure 1. Since there is no *ad hoc* educational body directing education, the primary authority for each county is the county council. Provision is made, however, for appointment by the county council of an education committee or committees. The council's functions as a local education authority can be exercised only on the recommendation or report of an education committee. The council may delegate to the education committees any of its responsibilities except those of raising a rate and borrowing money. As already stated, in most counties the schools are not administered directly by the committee of council and its administrative staff; instead, certain powers are delegated to divisional executives appointed by the county council. The councils of excepted boroughs and urban districts exercise the functions delegated to divisional executives. Thus the county council exercises its administrative authority through two types of administrative bodies: the divisional executive appointed by it; and the borough or urban district council elected by popular vote. If the authority so desires, it may place practically all phases of primary education in the hands of the divisional executives and excepted district councils and retain for itself the direct administration of secondary and further education; but the normal practice is to delegate considerable authority with regard to both primary and secondary education to divisional executives, retaining the powers which relate to further education.

Composition of Various Educational Bodies in England

4. An education committee of a local education authority consists of an indeterminate number of members, who are appointed by the local education authority (county council or county borough council). The majority are members of the authority itself; the remainder, known as co-opted members, are appointed for their special knowledge of educational matters.

5. The divisional executive is composed of an indeterminate number of members, who are appointed by the local education authority save in an excepted district, in which case the council of the borough or urban district exercises the powers of the divisional executive. There is no statutory pro-

¹In this section we shall discuss only the so-called "county" schools, that is, those established by a local education authority as opposed to "voluntary" schools established by religious denominations or private organizations.

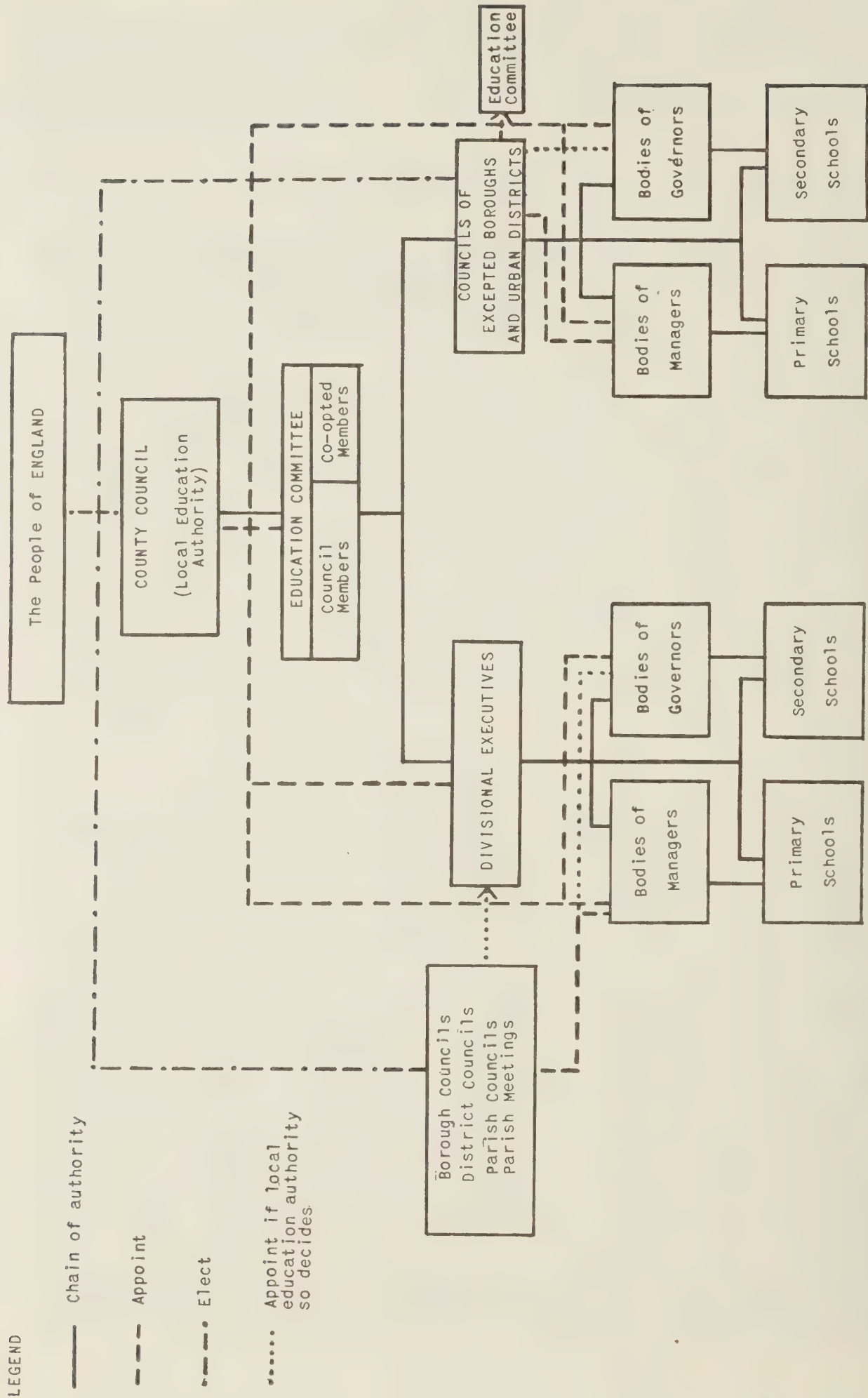


FIG. 1. PRESENT ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES

vision as to the number of members to be appointed to a divisional executive; a membership of between 20 and 30 is recommended as being ordinarily suitable.¹ The local education authority is legally free to appoint whomsoever it desires. However, the Ministry of Education circular of August 15, 1944, suggested that they be appointed from the following categories: representatives of the local education authority; nominees of the district councils which are wholly or partly within the divisional area; other persons of experience in education and acquainted with the area's needs, including representatives of industry and agriculture. The circular further suggested that, to secure the objects of the scheme, the members nominated by the district councils should be in the majority and other representation might be determined on a population basis. Such things as term of office, disqualifications, etc. are left to the local education authority, which has, however, to be guided by the relevant provisions of the *Local Government Act*, 1933. Employees of local education authorities, including teachers, are eligible for appointment to a divisional executive. Where the divisional executive is a council of a borough or urban district, an education committee (or committees) is usually appointed by it in much the same way as in the case of the local education authority.

6. The body of managers of a county elementary school is composed of not less than 6 members, appointed as follows: two-thirds by the local education authority;² and one-third by the minor authority, which, in the case of an excepted district, would be the borough or urban district council functioning as a divisional executive and, in other cases, the council of any borough, urban or rural district, or parish,³ of the area served by the particular school.

7. The body of governors of a county secondary school is constituted as determined by the local education authority. No definite number of members is laid down, but its purpose requires that it should be large enough to ensure that the various interests are adequately represented and small enough for all members to participate actively in the conduct of business.⁴ It is assumed that the governing body of each school will include adequate representation of the local education authority, though the representatives need not necessarily be members of the authority. In some cases, the governing body itself is permitted to co-opt a limited number of members. It is also considered desirable to have a representative of a

¹D. J. Beattie, P. S. Taylor and E. T. Davis, *The New Law of Education*, London: Butterworth, 1944, p. 280.

²Appointment of managers is one of the functions which may be delegated to a divisional executive.

³Where a particular school serves an area which is a rural parish with no parish council, the parish meeting is considered to be the minor authority; and where a school serves an area of two or more minor authorities, both or all of these acting jointly are considered as the minor authority.

⁴The median size of the bodies of governors of Northumberland county secondary schools is 14, and provision has been made for 15 governors for any new secondary school. The present range is from 7 to 17.

university, particularly of the local university, where one exists, and one or more persons associated with the commercial and industrial life of the district. Finally, it is felt that the interests of the teaching staff, parents, and former students should be reflected in the composition of the governing body. Although there is no statutory provision for the appointment of any of the governors of a county secondary school by the minor authority, such membership is not prohibited.

Joint Education Boards

8. In spite of the dissolution of the Part III authorities,¹ 169 in number, the units over which the remaining 146 authorities have jurisdiction are not, it is claimed, entirely satisfactory from the standpoint of area and population. The county boroughs are very small in area compared with the counties. Most of them have sufficient population to warrant their status as local education authorities; but a few, such as Canterbury, which has a school population of little more than 2,000, are too small to be empowered with all the responsibilities and duties this status entails. The same is also true of two of the counties, Rutland and the Soke of Peterborough, and of the Isles of Scilly,² all of which compare in school population with the county borough of Canterbury. To meet these situations, the Minister is empowered to establish a joint education board to administer all phases of education for the county and the county borough. A joint education board, which consists of members appointed by the councils concerned, appoints an education committee or committees just as does any other local education authority.

Joint Education Committees

9. Any two or more local education authorities may, with the approval of the Minister, establish a joint education committee for the consideration of questions of common interest. Where the Minister considers it expedient for two or more authorities to combine to exercise some of their educational functions, he may, after consulting them, order the establishment of a joint education committee whether they concur or not. The object behind the formation of a joint education committee is most commonly the provision of further education, especially of higher technical and art institutions which may be situated in a county borough though serving the needs of a large part of a county area.

Comments on the English Administrative System

10. Thus, while there are only 146 authorities in England dealing directly with the central education authority, there are nevertheless thousands of distinct lesser authorities. The latter do the actual administrative work connected with the appointment of teachers, the curriculum, and other

¹See Chapter VII.

²The Isles of Scilly rank as a county for purposes of the Education Act, 1944.

matters concerned with both the *externa* and *interna* of education. The setting of a rate and the borrowing of money for capital expenditure are left to the 146 councils; but in other matters an attempt is made to keep control as close to the people actually concerned with education as is compatible with efficiency.

UNITS AND BOARDS IN SCOTLAND

11. In Scotland there is only one type of education authority, and it is responsible for all phases of education. There are 37 such authorities, including the 4 burgh councils of Glasgow, Edinburgh, Dundee, and Aberdeen. Each school or group of schools has a local school management committee, appointed by the authority and consisting of representatives of the following: the education authority; the parents of children attending the school or schools under the management of the committee; the teachers of the school or schools; and the town or parish council. The local education authority can delegate to these committees any of its functions except those involving the raising of money, the acquisition or holding of land, the appointment, remuneration, or dismissal of teachers, and the building of schools. This leaves to the committees, if the authority so wills, the drafting of curricula, the provision of textbooks, and many other vital functions.

12. Unlike England, Scotland went through a period during which the local education authority for each of the large county and burgh units was an *ad hoc* education authority elected by popular vote. Behind the adoption of this arrangement was the fear that the schools' interests would be swamped "amid the multifarious business of the county councils",¹ a view held by the churches and labour. These *ad hoc* boards held sway for eleven years; but in 1929 the desire for a reduction in the number of local governing bodies, in the interests of economy, led to their abolition and to the transfer of their powers to the county councils and the four largest burgh councils. As in England, education committees have been established, the majority of whose members must be councillors; the remainder are men and women experienced in education, and representatives of the churches.

MOTIVATING FACTORS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF LARGER UNITS OF ADMINISTRATION IN CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES

13. In pioneer days in North America, educational administration did not present any serious difficulties. The community surrounding each individual school, that is, the attendance area of that school, was the administrative unit. So long as the prime purpose of elementary education was to teach the child to read, write, and cipher, and so long as this purpose could be achieved in five or six years of schooling, there was little need of, or opportunity for, anything but one-room rural schools. Great inequalities in

¹I. L. Kandel, *Educational Year Book of the International Institute of Teachers College*, Columbia University, 1932, New York, 1933, p. 386.

educational opportunity were not evident, since national and provincial and state wealth were spread fairly evenly over the whole populated area. Nor did secondary education present the difficulties it does today. The early high school was, in a very real sense, a vocational school for the 10 or 15 per cent of pupils who planned to enter the professions. The remaining pupils ended their schooling after five or six years in a "little red school-house". The cost of secondary education, even in thickly populated areas, was still largely an expense borne by the parents. With expanding industrialization and concurrent concentration of wealth in urban as opposed to rural communities, inequalities of opportunity became more apparent. The appearance of large industries and the diminishing incentive and opportunity for children to learn trades and skills in their parents' or relatives' homes or shops brought about the establishment of centralized schools, which, in some cases, continued to operate under individual boards of trustees, although eventually larger units of administration were formed. In other words, the city or large town became a single administrative unit for the operation of all schools within its boundaries. This tended to produce better instruction through improvements in accommodation, teacher placement, teaching aids, and special services which the small size of previous units had made it uneconomical to provide.

14. The improvement of educational facilities in cities led to a demand on the part of smaller centres for equivalent advantages. The small school population of the administrative units was, however, an almost insuperable obstacle to the achievement of equality. The continued impoverishment of the rural areas in many parts of Canada and the United States resulted in great inequalities in the ability of small school sections to finance an adequate programme of education, even of the one-room-school standard. The pressure was greatest in those states and provinces which were either economically depressed or sparsely populated. In the depressed areas of the southern states of the United States, a solution was sought through the enlargement of the size of the administrative unit. Since the county is a strong governmental unit in these states, it was used as the basic administrative unit for schools. This occurred in Tennessee in 1907 and in Kentucky in 1908. Other states adopted the same practice, and at the present time a solid block of southern states, extending from Maryland and West Virginia to Florida and from the Atlantic seaboard to the Mississippi, except only South Carolina and Mississippi, use the county as a basic unit of school administration.

15. In states and provinces where economic stress was a less pressing factor than sparsity of population, a more common method of meeting the demands for equalization between rural and urban areas was the enlargement of the unit of administration by means of the consolidation of attendance areas. States and provinces which did not adopt either the county unit or consolidation of attendance areas fall into one of the following three categories:

- (a) those whose units of administration were already large enough to meet the needs brought about by the economic and social changes;
- (b) those whose comparative wealth enabled them to meet the increased demands in spite of poor district organization; and
- (c) those which, not being in either class (a) or (b), made no changes despite economic necessity, reputedly owing to educational apathy.

16. The depression of the 1930's further aggravated the situation, especially in the Maritime Provinces of Canada, in Saskatchewan, and in the states of the so-called "dust-bowl". The effect of the Second World War was felt as much in education as in other fields and resulted, among other things, in a plethora of surveys and studies of educational administration. We have already shown the result of these studies on the English system. In North America there is hardly a province or state that has not examined its system of educational administration in an attempt to effect improvement.

UNITS AND BOARDS IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

17. In the United States of America states can be classified roughly in three groups according to the type of administrative unit most frequently found in them: (1) the "county-unit" states; (2) the states using the township and the town¹ as the basic unit of administration; and (3) the states using the school district as the basic unit of administration.

(1) *The County-Unit States* .

18. Twelve American states have the county-unit system of educational administration. In only one, however, West Virginia, is the system complete. Each of its 55 counties is the basic unit of administration for all schools within its boundaries, including those in cities and other incorporated centres. In two states, Maryland and Louisiana, the system is almost complete. Only the cities of Baltimore in Maryland, and New Orleans and Shreveport in Louisiana, are exempted from county control. The remaining 8 states in the county-unit group are rightly classed as having a semi-county system. The outstanding feature of administration in these states is that the county is the basic unit of administration generally with incorporated centres of varying sizes being exempted from county jurisdiction in educational matters.

19. Certain pertinent details with reference to 6 states which use the county as a basic unit of school administration are set out in Table 1. Table 2 shows data with reference to local education authorities in the same states. In these county-unit states the problem of district reorganization has been largely solved; all that remains is the eradication of those excepted districts which are too small to administer an adequate programme of education. This movement is progressing steadily. It is to be noted, however, that these states are all in what might be considered "the South", where the decentralization of education is not as marked as in the northern states.

¹The reference is to the New England "town", which is similar to a township.

TABLE 1
DATA CONCERNING UNITS OF ADMINISTRATION IN SIX STATES USING THE COUNTY AS A BASIC UNIT OF ADMINISTRATION

Item	MARYLAND	WEST VIRGINIA	NORTH CAROLINA	VIRGINIA	KENTUCKY	TENNESSEE
Number of Basic Units	24	55	172	124	256	150
Average Area of Basic Units	440 square miles	440 square miles	306 square miles	337 square miles	21 square miles	78 square miles
Average Population of Basic Units	91,120	32,856	21,167	24,079	10,725	19,986
Nature of Special Districts	City of Baltimore	None	Urban places with 1,000 children of school age	Cities with population of 5,000 or more	Cities or urban places having census of 200 or more white children	Districts created by special Acts of legislature and special charter districts
Number of Special Districts	1	None	72	24	136	55
Number of County Units	23	55	100	100	120	95
Average Area of County Units	460 square miles	440 square miles	527 square miles	418 square miles	337 square miles	445 square miles
Are there Sub-units of County Units?	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Nature and Purpose of Sub-units	Residual districts (some counties only)—caretaker board can refuse first and second appointments of teacher	Magisterial Districts—used only for nominating candidates for county board of education	Districts corresponding to attendance areas—nominate teacher or principal of elementary school	Magisterial Districts—used only in appointment of county board of education	In 7 or 8 counties sub-districts with power to nominate teachers for elementary schools. In all counties sub-divisions for purpose of electing county board of education	Not applicable

TABLE 2
DATA CONCERNING LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES IN SIX STATES USING THE COUNTY AS A BASIC UNIT OF ADMINISTRATION

Item	MARYLAND	WEST VIRGINIA	NORTH CAROLINA	VIRGINIA	KENTUCKY	TENNESSEE
Size of County Board of Education	3, 5, or 6	5	3 or 5	3-10	5	3-15 ^a
Method of Selection	Appointed	Elected	Appointed	Appointed	Elected	$\frac{1}{2}$ elected $\frac{1}{2}$ appointed
At large or by wards	At large	At large	At large	By magisterial districts (at large in a few cases)	By wards	At large
Appointer (if any)	Governor	Not applicable	State Legislature	Electoral board appointed by Circuit Court	Not applicable	County court
Term of Office	6 years	6 years	2, 4, or 6 years	4 years	4 years	$\frac{\text{Indefinite}}{7}$
Compensation	Nil	\$60 per year	\$5 per day	\$180 per year	\$5 per day	\$4 per day
(a) Salary	\$100 per year	Up to \$200 per year	5c per mile	5c per mile	\$100 per year	Nil
(b) Expenses	Dependent	Independent	Dependent	Dependent	Dependent	Dependent
Fiscal Status	Not applicable	Combined	Not applicable	Not applicable	Combined	Combined
Special or Combined Elections	Not applicable	Announce own candidacy	At party primaries	Not applicable	Petition with 50 names	
How nominated		None	3	Not applicable	1 (but only in 7 or 8 counties)	None
Number of Sub-district Trustees	3	Not applicable	Appointed by county board	Not applicable	Elected	Not applicable
How selected	Appointed by county board					

^aAppointed boards have 7 members.

It must also be remembered that in these states the county is the chief unit of local government, since there are no townships, and in most cases the towns and smaller urban communities are integral parts of the counties for taxation purposes.

(2) *States Using the Township and Town as Basic Units of Administration*

20. Three states—Indiana, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey—use the township as the basic unit of administration. The six New England States use a comparable unit, the town, which differs from the township in that, with the exception of certain cities, it is the only administrative subdivision of a county. The town can be urban, or rural, or both. In Indiana, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey, the county is used as an intermediate unit with supervision as its chief function. In addition to township units, cities and other incorporated centres are also basic units; in some cases independent, and in others under the supervision of the county superintendent. Pennsylvania has used the township as a basic unit since 1834 but has found in recent years that in many cases it is inadequate. The county has been recommended as a basic unit for rural schools in that state.

21. In the New England States, basic units have popularly elected boards of education, usually composed of from 3 to 9 members. The cities and larger towns appoint superintendents, to whom they delegate a great deal of the responsibility for the conduct of the schools. Professional supervision in all other units is provided for by means of what is known as a supervisory union. This may be formed either voluntarily or under the direction of the State Department of Education. The several school boards whose units compose the supervisory union, or one member from each, form a joint committee, the principal responsibility of which is to recommend or to appoint a union superintendent. In most cases the appointment is actually made by the joint committee.

(3) *States Using the District as a Basic Unit of Administration*

22. The majority of states still cling to some form of the school district as the basic unit of administration for schools. In all such states, however, the county is used as an intermediate unit, chiefly for purposes of supervision. The "districts" vary greatly in both size and composition. Generally speaking, rural school districts are dependent units and are under the supervision of the county superintendent, usually an elected officer. The other type of district is usually autonomous and provides its own supervision through a district superintendent of schools.

23. It is in the states which use the district as the basic unit that there has been the greatest activity during the past decade in making surveys and recommending changes in district organization. Some trends which are pertinent to the situation in Ontario are noted below.

(a) Reorganization by County Committees

24. The most comprehensive method of reorganization of local school units in the "district" states is that initiated by the State of Washington in 1941. At that time, for a total state population of 1,750,000 there were 1,323 school districts. The Washington legislation called for the establishment in each county of a county reorganization committee, to be appointed by a body composed of the county superintendent of schools and one person from each school district in the county. The powers and duties of these committees included the following:

- (1) To prepare and submit to the state committee within one and one-half years of its appointment a comprehensive plan for the reorganization of school districts within the county.
- (2) To give due consideration in the preparation of a plan for the reorganization of school districts to the educational needs of local communities, to economies in transportation and in administration costs, to the future use of existing satisfactory school buildings, etc., to the convenience and welfare of pupils, to reduction in disparities in per-pupil valuation among school districts, to the equalization of the educational opportunity of pupils, and to any other matters which in its judgment were of importance.
- (3) To hold public hearings on the feasibility of any proposal which involved formation of new districts or the transfer of territory from one district to another.
- (4) To prepare and submit to the state committee: a map showing the boundaries of established school districts and the boundaries proposed by the committee; recommendations respecting the location of schools, the utilization of existing buildings, the construction of new buildings, and the transportation requirements under the proposed plan; and a summary of the reasons for each proposed reorganization of school districts.
- (5) To divide each new school district into 5 sub-districts for the purpose of the election of the school board.

The enactment also provided for the establishment of a state committee for the reorganization of school districts, the chief duties of which were to aid the county committees in carrying out their duties, and to examine the plans submitted by the county committees and approve or reject them. The state committee was also given the power to appoint county reorganization committees where this was not done locally. The Washington plan is similar to that used in Ontario in the reorganization of larger high school districts. The chief difference is that the former includes units for the administration of all types of schools.

25. Certain problems arose during the discussion of reorganization plans for the State of Washington, problems which seem to arise everywhere

when reorganization into larger units is mooted. First and foremost, was a feeling on the part of some people that the programme was "taking the schools away from the people". Chisholm states:

The chief approach in overcoming the feeling was the fact that that idea is erroneous. The purpose back of school district reorganization is simply to *strengthen* the local school districts so that they may function more effectively in providing adequate educational opportunities for children and youth.

Those involved in the reorganization program in the state of Washington were staunch believers in the decentralization of education . . . They believed that the local school district system (be it a community, township, or county district) was and is the major factor in popularizing education and in enabling the schools to modify, adapt, and adjust their program to the needs of the children of the community . . . Over a period of time, inefficient school districts actually contribute significantly to social and economic stratification of life in the state . . . The main aim back of school district reorganization, therefore, is to make possible a better type of schooling for many children whose educational opportunities are being handicapped by inadequate school district organization.¹

26. By March, 1945, the reorganization programme in Washington had resulted in a reduction of the number of school units from slightly less than 1,400 to approximately 670. Plans for a further reduction in the number of districts were being prepared at the close of the period. County reorganization committees were being continued, with duties comparable to those they performed during the four years of operation under the special Act.

27. Following Washington's lead, Oregon, Kansas, Colorado, and Idaho have inaugurated similar plans of reorganization. In Michigan, the Public Education Study Commission has recommended the organization of school districts on a community basis throughout the state. Such districts would maintain both elementary and high schools under the same board of education. All rural school districts and all other districts having populations of less than 10,000 would be reorganized on the basis of natural centres of population large enough to have an enrolment of 360 pupils in grades VII to XII. The Michigan plan, as well as that for Kansas, does not go so far as to suggest complete consolidation of elementary schools, even within such a community district. More than one elementary school could be maintained in the district for pupils of the first six grades. The actual drafting of proposed boundaries would be left to county organization committees of 9 members, including both lay and professional persons. Such plans would first have to be acceptable to the state superintendent of education and the boards of education of the districts concerned, and would then be submitted to the electors for approval or rejection.

¹Leslie L. Chisholm, "School District Reorganization in the State of Washington" in *Your School District*, Department of Rural Education, Washington, D.C., 1948, pp. 227-228.

(b) The Central Rural District Law of New York State

28. The State of New York has many similarities to the southern part of Ontario, and the formation of the small rural school section in Ontario was originally greatly influenced by the situation in the neighbouring state. The present administrative units in Ontario are similar to those in the State of New York. In both, over 50 per cent of the rural school districts have been amalgamated into larger units. In Ontario these units are township school areas, still operating small rural elementary schools; in New York State they are central rural districts, operating such schools for pupils from grades I to VI and in addition a central school for pupils above the grade VI level. In recent years there have been recommendations for accelerating reorganization in the state. One is that intermediate units be created to serve as operating units between the state and local districts for functions specifically assigned. They would provide educational, administrative, and business management services which cannot be most effectively provided in the component districts. They would have a minimum enrolment of 5,000 pupils. The county was not recommended as the intermediate unit, although it was suggested that it might function as such in a few cases where it coincided with an ideal unit.

(c) The County as an Intermediate Unit in Ohio

29. Ohio offers a good example of a state using the county as a strong intermediate unit for purposes of supervision, and the city, village, and consolidated districts as the basic units of administration. The predominant types of basic units are the independent city and village districts, and the dependent rural districts, most of which are consolidated. These consolidated rural districts correspond very closely in size to the township school areas in Ontario. They differ in that, in most cases, they operate one central school instead of a number of small schools. They differ, too, in that they offer education from grades I to XII. County boards of education, elected at large, select a county superintendent with supervisory powers over the dependent districts. When a dependent district attains a population of 3,000, it may elect to become an independent district and thus be no longer under county supervision. This is a factor hindering the formation of completely satisfactory units, since the county board, which is empowered to make recommendations for the reorganization of the dependent districts within its boundaries, would hardly do so if it meant increasing the population of a district beyond 3,000. It has been recommended that the prescribed minimum population for an excepted district be raised to at least 5,000.

Summary

30. Our investigations indicate that the current trend in school district reorganization in the United States is away from the adoption of the county

or any specific municipal unit as the basic unit of administration and toward the adoption of the type of larger unit known as the "natural community district". Such a district has territory, valuation, and population sufficient to maintain both a satisfactory secondary school and one or more elementary schools. There is definite hesitancy to reorganize the districts by mandatory legislation, although such legislation is used to establish machinery, almost always on a county basis, for reorganization by local agencies in co-operation with state authorities. Changes enforced by mandatory legislation are limited to those that can be justified as a necessary exercise of its power by the central authority in order to assure the maintenance of a minimum programme for all schools.

UNITS AND BOARDS IN CANADA

31. Units of administration in the various provinces of Canada have not all developed in the same way, although development in each province has been influenced by what has happened in the others. For many years the provinces of Canada, except Quebec, had a somewhat parallel development. This resulted from the influence exerted by the Ontario system on the Western and Maritime systems, owing both to the fact that the system founded by Ryerson was one of the best on the continent at the time and to the fact that most of the early settlers of the West came from Ontario. The pattern usually followed involved roughly the following two steps:

- (1) The populated area of each province, including the urban centres, was divided into hundreds of small rural school sections or districts, or into urban wards. Each of the former averaged about 4 to 6 square miles in area, supported one school, which had usually but one teacher, and was administered by an elected board of school trustees, usually 3 in number.
- (2) "Districts" within cities and towns were amalgamated to form one school unit under a single board.

At the turn of the century these two steps had been taken in six of the seven provinces existing at that time. With the exception of the organization in Ontario, the subsequent changes in each province will be dealt with in the order in which the province adopted the larger unit of administration.

British Columbia

32. In 1905 each organized municipality,¹ rural and urban, within the Province of British Columbia was made one school district by mandatory legislation. In unorganized territory, however, comprising over 90 per cent of the area of the province, the one-teacher school district remained. Provision was made in 1916 for the voluntary formation of consolidated school

¹There are 28 "district municipalities" which correspond roughly to Ontario townships (most of them rural, but some cities in all but name), and 33 "cities"; of the latter, only 3 would be classed as cities in Ontario, the remainder being similar to towns and villages.

districts, but few were organized. In 1925 the *Report of the Survey of the School System*, submitted by Commissioners J. H. Putman and G. M. Weir, recommended that consolidation of assisted schools be carried out wherever it seemed educationally or financially desirable, despite disapproval of local boards.

33. In Canada the term "larger unit of school administration" was first used in connection with the famous Peace River Educational Area. It was formed during the years 1934 to 1936 by abolishing the boundaries of 63 impoverished rural school districts in the pioneer country of the Peace River Block in the north-east corner of the province. Provision was made for the administration of the whole of the area as a single unit by a provincially appointed officer in conjunction with a central advisory committee and local advisory committees for each school. This absence of significant local control occurred because the province was paying practically 100 per cent of the cost of operating the schools; it was in accordance with the recommendation of the Putman-Weir Report that, where the government paid the full salary of the teacher, it should also have the right to engage or dismiss him. Two years' operation of this unit proved that its greatly improved educational programme could be maintained at an actual saving of several thousands of dollars.

34. This successful experiment on a large scale convinced educators across Canada of the possibilities of the larger unit as a solution for the educational problems developed by social changes and aggravated by the depression. It resulted in legislation in Alberta, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, and Ontario to enable the establishment of larger units of administration.

35. But in British Columbia itself the plan was not immediately adopted throughout the province. The Peace River Block is British Columbia's only territory within the Great Plains area of Canada. The topography of the rest of the province, which lies within the Cordilleran Region, has resulted in widely separated pockets of population. Such conditions require a different type of organization.

36. In 1935, when the two adjacent rural municipalities of Matsqui and Sumas in the lower Fraser River Valley became financially unable to provide education, the Department of Education persuaded the trustees of the two districts and of the Village of Abbotsford to form a larger unit of administration for an experimental period of three years, during which time they would be guaranteed no increase in taxes for school purposes. The area was made a demonstration centre for modern education. Obsolete school plants were modernized; teachers' salaries were raised; special services were provided, such as health, night schools, and adult education; high school education was centralized; and pupils in small inefficient schools were transported to central schools. All this was achieved for 23 per cent less money than was originally needed to maintain only the mediocre ser-

vices of two of the component districts. Since the end of the three-year period the ratepayers of the area have continued the new system. In the Matsqui-Sumas-Abbotsford Administrative Area, as in the Peace River Area, there was originally no school board; the schools were administered by a Director of Education, appointed by the provincial Department of Education, acting as the official trustee. This removal of administrative authority from local control was a temporary measure only; eventually, school boards were elected, and control was returned to the local communities.

37. A third experiment was concerned with the co-operation of rural areas with neighbouring cities. Twenty-one rural school districts in the Nanaimo-Ladysmith area of Vancouver Island were formed into a single unit. The same type of administrative organization was used as in the two earlier experiments. Five elementary schools were established at pivotal points in the district, to which pupils were transported. Secondary school facilities were provided by the two cities on a fee basis for rural pupils, who were transported to them at the expense of the larger unit.

38. The success of these experiments led to the appointment, in 1944, of Maxwell A. Cameron as a Commission of one to inquire into educational finance and the administrative relationship between the province and the school districts. The chief recommendations of his Report concerned school finance and suggested that the province's share in the cost of education be increased. In order to ensure that financial equality would be coupled with educational equality and that an inefficient administrative system would not be perpetuated, the Report also recommended concurrent changes in district organization, chief among which were the following:

- (1) The province should be divided into 74 larger school districts.
- (2) Cities, towns, villages, consolidated schools districts, high school districts, community school districts, and municipal school districts, as well as purely rural school districts, should be included in the reorganization.
- (3) Districts were to vary greatly in both area and population.
- (4) The proposed districts should be both fiscal and basic administrative units and should not be sub-divided; the previous component districts should be abolished, and the district board elected at large in the new district.
- (5) The system of school districts should be reorganized without seeking local approval.
- (6) Fifteen isolated districts should remain unattached to the larger districts.

The British Columbia Legislature adopted the recommendations of the Cameron Report, and the schools of the province are now operating under 89, instead of the former 653, education authorities.

39. Each of the 74 large school districts has an elected board of school trustees of 5, 7, or 9 members, as determined by the Minister of Education. These boards are elected in one of two ways, depending on the municipal

organization within the district. If the district contains all or part of an organized municipality, the board is elected by ballot at the time of the regular municipal elections. If it does not, the board is elected by a delegate system as follows: the school inspector defines school attendance areas within the enlarged district; an annual meeting of the qualified voters is held in June in each school attendance area, at which time delegates are elected from the qualified voters to represent the attendance area at a special meeting held to elect the district board. The number of delegates to be elected at a given meeting is determined by the size of the school located in that attendance area. Each of the 15 unattached districts still elects a 3-man board.

Alberta

40. In 1905, when the Province of Alberta was first constituted, there were 476 school districts, each having an area of about 16 to 20 square miles. Most were rural and all were autonomous. By 1935 the number had increased to 3,859, including 52 city and town districts which had provided educational facilities far in advance of those offered by the vast majority of the smaller districts. The consolidation movement had made some progress, so that there were 45 consolidated school districts at that time, 34 of which had been in existence since 1917.

41. Efforts before 1936 to set up larger units of administration by legislation failed owing to opposition led by the School Trustees' Association. The first two large units to be formed were a direct result of far-reaching changes in two sections of the province: the influx of large numbers of families to Turner Valley, following the discovery of oil; and depopulation in the drought-stricken Berry Creek area. In both areas, since the small school districts were unable to cope with the new situation, a single administrative unit was formed. The success of these experiments led the newly formed Social Credit Party to support the formation of larger school units as a major plank in the party platform. On being elected in 1936, the Social Credit Government immediately amended the School Act to provide for the reorganization of part of the province into 48 school "divisions". A division usually consisted of from 50 to 80 rural school districts and was divided into 5 "sub-divisions" for election purposes. Boundaries were determined in accordance with topography, transportation facilities, population, marketing centres, and community of interests. City, town, village, consolidated and separate school units were not included in the divisions. Other divisions have since been formed, with the result that at the present time all the rural sections of the province, with the exception of a few isolated ones, are included in 58 school divisions. There is a definite trend also toward the inclusion of village and town districts in the divisions.

42. The elementary and secondary schools of each division are administered by a divisional school board of 3 or 5 members, each representing a sub-division and elected for a period of three years. A provincially ap-

pointed inspector, known as the divisional superintendent, acts as adviser to each board and supervisor of instruction for the division. He also supervises instruction in the city, town, and village districts which are located within, but do not form a part of, his division. Local, 3-man, elected school boards continue in existence in the residual districts;¹ but their duties are largely advisory except when religion or the French language is a subject of instruction in the elementary grades; then they have the right to nominate the teacher to be appointed. Centralization or consolidation of attendance areas is a matter for individual decision by each division. Except in the south the tendency has been, chiefly because of the sparsity of population, to continue to operate one-room schools.

Nova Scotia

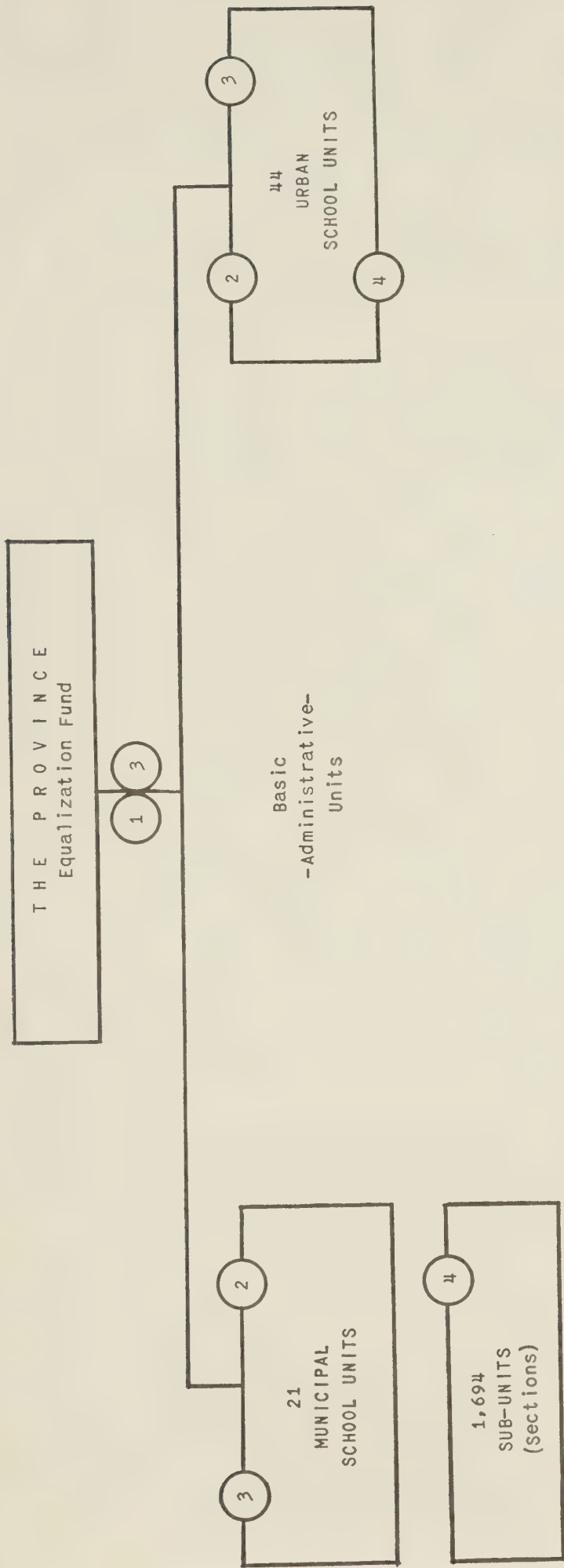
43. The problem in Nova Scotia differed somewhat from that in either of the two western provinces mentioned above. The three chief reasons were: the relatively high density of population; the fact that the entire area of the province was divided into 18 counties; and the size of the rural municipalities, which in most cases were conterminous with the counties. The Superintendent of Education explained, in his annual report for 1926, the need for a broader basis of financial support for rural schools; and he continued each year until 1937 to advocate the adoption of the municipality as the unit for school finance. A Commission appointed by the government in 1939 recommended that the municipality be the fiscal unit, and that it have certain other administrative powers. Enabling legislation was passed in 1943, and an educational campaign, led by teachers and inspectors and supported by the home and school associations, was launched to explain the scheme to the general public. The plan went into operation in two counties on an experimental basis in September, 1942. Further campaigns were carried on in succeeding years. In 1942 there were 1,753 school units in the province, consisting of 2 cities, 43 towns, and 1,708 rural and village² sections. At the present time all 21 rural municipalities are single units for the administration of schools.

44. The change to the larger unit in Nova Scotia depended on a favourable vote by the ratepayers of a majority of the local school sections in the municipality concerned and the approval of the municipal council. The determining factor in the voluntary adoption of the larger unit appears to have been financial. Such part of the cost of the minimum programme as was raised by local taxation was fixed, and all additional costs were borne by the provincial government.

45. Each municipal school unit is administered by a municipal school board of 7 members, 3 appointed by the municipal council, 3 by the Lieu-

¹A residual district is one which has surrendered most of its administrative functions to the board of a larger unit.

²There are no incorporated villages in Nova Scotia. A village section is defined as one having a school of more than one classroom.



KEY:

1 Supervision

2 Employ teachers

3 Finance minimum programme

4 Finance additions to minimum programme

Average Enrolment
per Basic Unit 2,034

Average Area
per Basic Unit 324
(square miles)

FIG. 2. PRESENT ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS IN NOVA SCOTIA

tenant-Governor in Council, and one—the municipal clerk—being an *ex officio* member of the board. The local, elected, 3-man boards remain; but their chief powers are exercised in the expenditure of a small annual sum for maintenance needs and in levying for capital expenditures and for extensions to the minimum programme. Figure 2 shows the present organization of school units in Nova Scotia. At the present time the province has a total of 65 basic school units—21 municipal units and 44 city and town units. Provision has been made for the latter to join the municipal units on a voluntary basis.

New Brunswick

46. The factors mentioned above as distinguishing Nova Scotia from the two most westerly provinces of Canada also apply to New Brunswick, except that in the latter province the rural municipality coincides with the county in all cases. There are 15 counties, with an average area of 1,865 square miles. There are 3 cities, 19 incorporated towns, and 4 incorporated villages, all of which are integral parts of the counties in which they are located, except the City of Fredericton, which, by a special Act of the Legislature, has been separated, for school purposes only, from the County of York. Each county is sub-divided into parishes, which correspond roughly with the township in Ontario except that they have no municipal organization. Each parish is divided into from 2 to 30 school “districts”, corresponding to the rural school “sections” of Ontario and Nova Scotia.

47. The consolidation movement began early in New Brunswick but was never very successful, largely because of the increased financial burden on the local ratepayers.¹ There was a widening gap between the educational facilities provided by the small districts and those provided by the larger units in cities and towns. The demand for secondary education of a diversified type increased. There was a decline in real-property values in non-urban areas, with the consequent impoverishment of the small rural district; and tax inequalities existed between individual districts, parishes, and counties. All this led in 1931 to the appointment of a Commission on Education which recommended in part:

- (1) That the county be established as the financial unit for school purposes.
- (2) That a county school commission of 7 be appointed, 3 by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, and 4 by the county council.
- (3) That the inspector be the official adviser of the school commission.
- (4) That the annual school meeting continue to be held, and that trustees be elected, as before, to administer the local affairs of the district within the financial limits set by the county school commission.
- (5) That a provincial tax commission be appointed to secure an equalization of valuations for taxation purposes throughout the province.

¹While it is true that larger units of administration are more economical than small ones for provision of comparable services, it is nevertheless true that total educational costs often increase because of vast improvement in facilities offered.

- (6) That a provincial equalization fund be set up, so that the rate of taxation for financing and maintaining schools might be the same in the various counties.
- (7) That each urban and town district be given the option of becoming part of the county system.

No action was taken on this report when it was presented to the Legislature.

48. In the summer of 1937 a summer school class in rural school administration made, under the guidance of its instructor—the first regional director of the Peace River Educational Area in British Columbia—a survey of King's County. It advocated a county unit somewhat similar to that advocated by the Commission in 1932. Although legislation was passed permitting the establishment of the county unit in King's County, no such unit was formed, chiefly because, although services would have been greatly improved, the cost to local ratepayers would have been increased. The problem was attacked from a new angle in the early years of the Second World War, when a campaign was waged for rural high schools through the consolidation of school districts. This new plan for consolidation differed from the earlier proposal in several ways:

- (1) As far as possible only pupils of grades VII to XI were to be transported to the central school. Small one-room schools were to be improved and used for pupils below grade VII.
- (2) The regional high school was to be a composite school, offering both the academic course and vocational courses related to the basic occupation of the community concerned.

Under this legislation, three such schools were established in areas which previously had had no high school facilities. The movement was hindered by lack of government building grants and by the great inequalities in tax rates among the various districts considering consolidation. This usually meant a considerable increase in the tax of the wealthier districts and a corresponding decrease in the tax rate of the poor districts. Under these circumstances local jealousies usually triumphed over educational needs.

49. From 1943 on, the province assumed 40 per cent of the cost of building and 50 per cent of the cost of equipment of rural high schools. At the same time the financing of rural schools was put on a county-unit basis. Permissive in form, the Act¹ allowed the establishment by the council of any county, upon the request of the majority of the rural school districts in the county, of a county school finance board of 7 members, 3 appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council and 4 by the county council.

50. The financial scheme which gave the necessary impetus to the county-unit plan is briefly as follows:

- (1) The county becomes the unit for taxation and for financing the minimum programme, while the districts remain as basic administrative

¹*County Schools Finance Act*, 7 Geo. VI, Ch. 34, S.N.B., 1943.

units and as units for the financing of additions to the minimum programme.

- (2) All provincial and county grants are paid as heretofore and in addition 10 per cent of the net budget is paid by the province.
- (3) Each year the province pays an additional amount equal to 10 per cent of the net budget, intended as an equalization fund within each county, to be used to bring sub-standard schools up to a minimum standard and thereafter gradually to raise that standard.

51. The county unit in New Brunswick cannot actually be classed as a basic unit of administration, since the power to appoint teachers and to finance capital expenditure remains with the boards of the local districts. These are of two types:

- (1) The small rural school district, administered by an elected board of 3 trustees, and usually operating a one-teacher school. This type is rapidly disappearing.
- (2) Consolidated school districts, each operating from 12 to 36 one-teacher schools for pupils of grades I to VI and a rural composite high school for pupils of grades VII to XII.

It is hoped to group the non-urban school districts of the province into approximately 50 such consolidated districts or "regions", as they are to be called. Of these, 27 have been planned and 13 are in operation. Each consolidated district or region is administered by a board of from 5 to 9 members, of which the majority are elected at large and the remainder appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council.

52. Provision is made for city and town districts to join the county units by agreement, and one town has already done so. New Brunswick, therefore, has only 36 fiscal units: 15 county units and 21 town and city units.

Saskatchewan

53. After the formation of the Province of Saskatchewan in 1905, the southern half of the province was quickly covered with a network of small local school districts, each approximately 20 square miles in area. Provision was made in 1913 for the establishment of consolidated school districts, not smaller than 25 and not larger than 50 square miles in area; but these were not as successful in Saskatchewan as elsewhere in the West, and there were only 41 such units in 1944.

54. The province was hard hit by the depression of the 1930's, and school conditions at that time reached an all-time low. In 1937 a committee of Saskatchewan teachers, in a report prepared for the Canadian Teachers' Federation, proposed that larger administrative units be formed, each consisting of from 60 to 75 districts and comprising approximately 4 municipalities. Finance and the employment of teachers were to be the responsibility of the larger unit boards, and other duties were to be left

with the local trustees. In 1939 a Committee on School Administration appointed by the Saskatchewan government recommended¹ that:

- (1) Several experimental larger units be set up after a favourable vote of the ratepayers in the areas concerned; these units to include from 60 to 75 districts each.
- (2) Each unit be divided into 5 or 6 sub-units, each to elect a trustee to the unit board.
- (3) The powers of unit school boards be similar to those possessed by division boards in Alberta.
- (4) Separate, consolidated, village, and town schools be excluded, with provision for their inclusion on special terms to be agreed on.
- (5) After five years of operation, the ratepayers be given the opportunity to decide by vote whether or not the unit is to continue in operation.
- (6) District boards be retained, but have no powers over finance or employment of teachers.

55. In 1944 the Saskatchewan Legislature passed *The Larger School Units Act*, which implemented the recommendations of the Committee's report except in the following respects:

- (1) Resident ratepayers of the proposed unit may petition that a vote be taken before the unit is set up; otherwise the unit may be set up by proclamation.
- (2) Teachers are appointed and paid by the unit board. However, the unit board is required to appoint one of a panel of nominees presented by the district board, if the latter so desires.
- (3) Each unit is under the supervision of a superintendent appointed by the Minister.
- (4) Village schools are included in the school units.

56. In 1944 there were 4,571 school districts in operation in the province. By 1949, 46 larger school units had been formed and 20 more were planned. In 1945 the Department of Education organized the remote northern area of the province into an administrative unit under its direct control. Seventeen schools are in operation in the area, the complete cost of education being borne by the province.

57. The method of establishing the larger units in Saskatchewan allowed for the operation of local opinion in a negative rather than a positive way: the establishment of such units proceeded except in those cases where resident ratepayers or the proposed unit petitioned that a vote be taken. Apparently very few such petitions were received, as 45 units were set up during the first year following the passing of the Act.

58. Each larger unit is administered by a school unit board composed of 5 or 6 elected members. Each member is elected from a sub-unit which exists solely for this purpose. A sub-unit member is not elected by the

¹Report of the Committee on School Administration to the Minister of Education for Saskatchewan, Regina: King's Printer, 1940.

ratepayers but by a body of delegates, selected by the trustees of the residual districts. This is one of the few cases found in Canada or the United States where membership on a larger unit board is controlled by the boards of the residual districts.

Manitoba

59. The original basic unit of school administration in Manitoba was the small local "district", operating one school, patterned after the Ontario school section. Originally, this small district, often isolated, had almost complete autonomy in education. Gradually, however, with increasing demands for better educational opportunities, the basis of financial support was broadened from the district to the municipality, the only civil subdivision in Manitoba.¹ At an early date the municipality became an intermediate unit, responsible for the larger part of the financial contribution toward the operation of schools. Thus, one of the most cogent reasons for establishing larger units of administration—the spreading of the burden of school support over a larger area—did not apply to the situation in Manitoba. But another reason, the provision of secondary education for rural children, was sufficient to bring about the establishment of 103 consolidated school districts in the province between 1905 and 1919. Since that date no new one has been formed and two have been dissolved.

60. In 1910 enabling legislation for the establishment of municipal school districts was adopted. Such districts were to consist of the municipality as the basic administrative unit rather than as only the fiscal intermediate unit. Not until 1919 did a municipality vote to adopt such a plan. This municipality, Miniota, has remained the only such unit in the province. This fact has led opponents of reform to argue that the rural people of Manitoba do not favour the larger unit of administration. The ineffectiveness of the Act, however, can be explained in other ways:

- (1) It provided for no increased legislative grants; indeed, on the contrary, it stipulated that the legislative grant to the municipal district could not exceed the aggregate grant to the original districts comprising it until the number of teachers employed became greater than the number previously employed by its constituent districts.
- (2) The provision of high school education, increased salaries, new modern buildings, better equipment, and transportation of all pupils living more than one mile from school greatly increased the cost of education. This increased cost had to be borne entirely by the ratepayers of the municipality.
- (3) As previously noted, taxation had been already partially equalized by using the municipality as the unit for taxation.

¹For municipal purposes Manitoba is divided into 115 rural municipalities, 30 towns, 23 villages, 4 cities, and one municipal district, plus a large area of unorganized territory. The majority of municipalities consist of from 6 to 12 townships and from 216 to 432 square miles. There are no counties.

After 1919 little was achieved toward the establishment of larger units. Despite the recommendations of the Assessment and Taxation Commission in 1919, the Educational Commission in 1924, and the Special Committee of the Legislature on Suburban Problems in 1925, no legislation for larger units was enacted.

61. However, with the development in other provinces of larger units in the late 1930's and during the war, interest was renewed, and a Special Select Committee of the Legislature was appointed in 1944 to survey the whole educational field in Manitoba. In 1945 this committee recommended the establishment of experimental large school areas modelled on those in Alberta and Saskatchewan and, if these proved successful, the extension of the plan to the whole province. Special features of the recommendations of the Select Committee with regard to these school areas were:

- (1) Units should be large enough to provide complete elementary and secondary educational programmes, including provision for differentiation of educational opportunity.
- (2) Units should conform to rational divisions; they should be grouped around local community centres, have similarity of conditions, and have good road communications.
- (3) Towns and villages should be included as natural community centres.
- (4) Local boards should be retained with certain definite powers, among which would be the right to nominate a panel of teachers.
- (5) Many one-room schools were to be continued in operation.
- (6) The problem of consolidation of attendance areas should be left with the area boards.
- (7) A majority vote of the ratepayers within a proposed area should be necessary for the formation of a larger administrative unit.
- (8) An educational campaign should be carried out by the Department of Education to promote the acceptance of the idea by the people of the province.
- (9) The province should assume 50 per cent of the basic operational costs of education.

62. Within a year an Act was passed providing for the establishment of two such experimental school areas. The first of these is now in operation — the Dauphin-Ochre River Area. All the listed features of the report were incorporated in the Act, with the exception of the last. The fact that no other area has since been formed suggests that the voluntary formation of larger units without special financial inducements (as in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia) is impracticable.

Quebec

63. There are two separate and distinct systems of education in Quebec, based on religious affiliation. One is termed the Catholic Committee System and the other the Protestant Committee System. The latter system actually

includes the education of all those who are not Roman Catholics. Since 1841 the township has been the basic unit of rural school administration for both systems. One board of school commissioners administers all the schools of the majority religious group in each municipality, whether rural or urban, and one board of school trustees administers all the schools of the minority religious group. The fact that units have always been large enough to avoid many of the weaknesses of the small district system, and the fact that the secondary school problem is not so acute as elsewhere, owing to the large number of private residential schools established by religious communities, are chiefly responsible for the lack of any major step toward the formation of larger units of administration in the Roman Catholic school system. Another factor is the existence of over 100 vocational and agricultural high schools, administered under the Department of Social Welfare and Youth and the Department of Agriculture, which has tended to lessen the demand for the composite high school.

64. The situation in the Protestant school system is somewhat different. The Protestants are in the minority in most of the school municipalities; and in an area comparable to a township there are seldom more than enough pupils to warrant the establishment of a single school. For this reason the movement toward larger school units has been very strong in the Protestant system. The first step was the formation of consolidated schools, primarily for the purpose of providing high school education. By 1943 there were 49 consolidated school districts operating in the Protestant system of Quebec. The second step, in 1925, was the formation of the Montreal Protestant Central School Board, composed of the Cities of Montreal, Westmount, Outremont, Verdun, and Lachine, and 6 other towns and municipalities on the Island of Montreal. This was an intermediate unit for financial purposes; the 11 municipalities continued to elect their own boards, which engaged and dismissed teachers and administered their schools much as they had always done. The Central Board was the fiscal body, raising all revenue, fixing salary scales, and approving budgets and the number of teachers to be employed.¹

65. In 1938 a Survey Committee under the chairmanship of W. A. F. Hepburn, Director of Education, Ayrshire, Scotland, made the following recommendations:²

- (1) That the Montreal Protestant Central School Board be extended to include all Montreal Island and some adjoining mainland suburbs, and that the smaller boards be abolished; educational policy and administration to be directly in the hands of the central board.
- (2) That the remainder of the province be divided into 9 districts with elected boards, with local boards of commissioners or trustees retained for certain purposes.

¹Cf. the New Brunswick county finance boards.

²W. A. F. Hepburn, *Protestant Education in the Province of Quebec*, Report of the Quebec Protestant Education Survey, 1938.

Legislation in 1943 provided for larger areas when a majority of the school municipalities concerned voted in favour of the change. The Act followed the recommendations of the Hepburn report very closely, except in the size of the central school districts where it followed proposals made in 1937 that 18 central school boards be formed in those communities in which Protestants were most numerous.

66. Since 1945, 10 county central school boards have been formed, and application has been made for the formation of another. The local boards levy and collect the taxes but pay all moneys into the central board for disbursement. The chief duties of the central school boards are:

- (a) to engage teachers for all the schools in the unit;
- (b) to establish schools wherever necessary;
- (c) to exercise supervision over all phases of education within the schools;
- (d) to appoint supervisors when necessary; and
- (e) to study the reports of local boards.

No administrative or other expenses may be met by any local board unless they are included in its budget and have been approved by the central school board concerned.

67. In 1945, 9 of the 11 Protestant school boards operating under the Montreal Protestant Central School Board transferred their administrative duties to it. The remaining 2 boards, those in Westmount and Outremont, continue to administer their own schools but are financed as part of the larger unit.

Prince Edward Island

68. Since Prince Edward Island has continued to operate under a system of small districts, little assistance for our purpose can be gained from experience there. The unfortunate failure of the first consolidated school in Canada, which was located on the Island, nullified the recommendations of a Royal Commission of 1910 that all schools in the province be reorganized as consolidated schools. The school began operation in 1903 and was discontinued in 1912 owing to the greatly increased cost to the ratepayers. In 1945 the Interim Report of the Prince Edward Island Advisory Reconstruction Committee recommended the reorganization of the whole province as one unit for purposes of educational finance and the gradual establishment of approximately 30 areas or regions for high school purposes, each to be presided over by a board. In 1948 the Assembly passed legislation providing for the establishment of large high school districts. The high school board was to be composed of 7 members—3 appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council and 4 elected by a group consisting of 2 representatives from each of the districts comprising the area. A major feature of the plan, which is now in operation, is that the boards are controlled by representatives of the small elementary school districts, the high school education of whose pupils it administers.

Newfoundland

69. Since Newfoundland did not become a province of Canada until 1948, we have not felt it necessary to include material relating to units and boards in that province. In any event, the system of education which obtains in Newfoundland is entirely different from that in any of the other nine provinces.

Ontario

70. Units of school administration and local education authorities in Ontario have been dealt with fully in the previous chapter. The modified township is now the basic unit for public elementary school administration in over half of the former rural school sections. However, owing to advances in the fields of transportation and communication, as well as to increasing demands for a type of secondary education which experience has shown requires support from a population of approximately 3,500 people, the vast majority of Ontario townships cannot be considered satisfactory units for the administration of education. Experience in British Columbia, Saskatchewan, and many parts of the United States indicates that for the ideal community school district a larger and more populous area than the average Ontario township is required.

71. Although the many suggestions made to us on this topic show a wide variety of opinions, the great majority have reference to a unit of the size of a county or inspectorate.¹ Most of those submitting briefs, however, placed emphasis on what they wished an administrative unit to accomplish rather than on its size or type.

SUMMARY FOR CANADA

72. In Canada the general trend is definitely toward larger units of administration. However, there does not seem to be any corresponding trend toward decentralization of control over *interna*. In fact, the appointment of inspectors or superintendents by the provincial authorities rather than by the larger-unit boards may well foreshadow an ever increasing centralization of all forms of educational authority in provincial Departments of Education. In all provinces, attention has been focussed on the excessive decentralization of many aspects of the *externa*; and, in the changes made to effect a remedy, there may have been a failure to appreciate the possibility of danger in excessive centralization in provincial Departments of Education of the *interna*, the meat of the educational sandwich.

73. The type of larger unit favoured has depended to a large extent on the municipal structure of the province, the density of population, and the topographical conformation. However, except in British Columbia, there is a trend toward the adoption of two types of units: the larger unit proper, an area having either municipal or topographical coherence and large

¹See Brief 16 submitted by Ontario Citizens' Forum; Brief 36 submitted by the Ontario School Trustees' and Ratepayers' Association; and Brief 69 submitted by the Ontario Educational Association.

enough (having approximately 100 teachers) to serve as the supervisory unit of a provincially appointed inspector, serving as the basic fiscal unit for current expenditures on the minimum programme; and the community district, a unit large enough to operate a secondary school and one or more elementary schools, serving as the fiscal unit for capital expenditures and additions to the minimum programme.

74. In forming the larger units proper, where the municipality is small, as in Alberta, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba, the policy has been either to disregard municipal boundaries altogether or to combine a number of municipalities. Where the rural municipality is large, as in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, the policy has been to make the larger unit coincide with it.

75. The community districts vary greatly. The following are the chief types:

- (1) The consolidated school district, consisting of one central school where all grades from I to XI or XII are taught. Usually such a school has only one or two high school teachers or none at all. This type is usually the result of reorganization during or immediately following the First World War and cannot be considered a satisfactory example of a larger unit.
- (2) The village or town district forming part of the larger unit, also consisting usually of a single school containing both elementary and high school departments.
- (3) The rural composite high school district, consisting of from 10 to 30 one- or two-room schools for pupils of grades I to VI, I to VII, or I to VIII, and a central composite high school for the remaining pupils.
- (4) The one-teacher district, usually offering only elementary education in grades I to VIII. In such districts, high school pupils attend:
 - (a) high schools in excepted urban districts;
 - (b) high school rooms in neighbouring included districts; or
 - (c) regional high schools established and operated by the larger-unit board.

76. In the selection of the members of local education authorities, the trend has been to retain the traditional method. Thus, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia have appointed boards in charge of their county units, similar to those they previously had in their cities and towns. The western provinces have retained elected boards. A departure has been the practice, already described, of using a delegate system in the election of unit boards in Saskatchewan and of high school boards in Prince Edward Island.

77. Where a system of election prevails, all electors usually have the right to vote for candidates. The ward system has been introduced in the Prairie Provinces, based on the claim that the larger unit is so extensive that voters in one part do not know the candidates in the other parts. One favourable aspect of this system is that it gives adequate but not disproportionate representation to both urban and rural parts of the unit.

CHAPTER X

LOCAL UNITS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION IN THE PROPOSED REORGANIZATION

1. In all countries, practices relating to local units of administration are under constant scrutiny for the purpose of recommending improvements in administrative organization. As a result, we have been able to consult a wealth of material on the subject, including the reports of Commissions, surveys, and controlled experiments. We have directed our attention particularly to topics relating to local units of school administration; and, since we have already recommended that the administration of the *interna* of education be decentralized, we have concentrated on those findings which are consistent with such decentralization.

CURRENT OPINIONS

Nature of a Satisfactory Unit

2. The opinion of the majority of those who have studied the problem of local units of school administration in Canada and the United States is that two criteria should determine the basic unit of administration in a decentralized system: there should be a community of interests within the unit; and there should be a sufficient number of pupils to warrant the operation of a modern school system extending from kindergarten to high school graduation. Thus Cameron¹ stated that for British Columbia the unit should be based on a population large enough to provide a reasonably adequate schooling from grades I to XII and should be understandable to the local people as a community, economic entity, or trading area. The Special Select Committee of the Manitoba Legislature² set up similar criteria, as did Baird.³ Support of the community-centred district is found in the United

¹Maxwell A. Cameron, *Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Educational Finance*, Victoria: King's Printer, Province of British Columbia, 1945, p. 86.

²*Report of the Special Select Committee of the Manitoba Legislative Assembly on Education*, Winnipeg: King's Printer, 1945, p. 16.

³Norman B. Baird, *Educational Finance and Administration for Ontario*, Unpublished Doctor's Thesis, University of Toronto, 1946, p. 214.

States in investigations such as those of Butterworth,¹ Greene and Meadows,² Mulford,³ and the Michigan Public Education Committee.⁴

Relation between Local School Units and Municipal Boundaries

3. Whether or not municipal boundaries should be considered in establishing the boundaries of community-centred districts depends largely on the size of the rural municipality. Where the rural municipality is small, the best practice seems to be to disregard municipal boundaries. Thus Cameron⁵ specifically recommended that municipal boundaries be disregarded in "re-districting" the province of British Columbia. Plenderleith,⁶ in recommending satisfactory attendance areas for a New Brunswick county, disregarded parish boundaries. Where the rural municipality is the county, or a unit comparable in size, most authorities recommend that it become the basic unit. Thus, the county has been recommended by Plenderleith, Baird,⁷ the Trustees' and Ratepayers' Department of the Ontario Educational Association,⁸ Sandiford,⁹ McGuire,¹⁰ the Arkansas Education Association,¹¹ the Idaho Education Survey Commission¹² and the Ohio School Survey Commission.¹³ The rural municipality was recommended by Fletcher¹⁴ for Nova

¹Julian E. Butterworth, "A New Attack on Rural School Problems", *Nation's Schools*, XXXIII (January, 1944), pp. 29-30.

²Crawford Greene and A. R. Meadows, "Structural Organization of State School Systems", *American Education in the Postwar Period*, Forty-fourth Year Book, Part III, National Society for the Study of Education, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945, pp. 118-152.

³Herbert B. Mulford, "Marked Progress in Effort to Reorganize 1200 Illinois Public School Districts", *American School Board Journal*, CXII (February, 1946), p. 58.

⁴Michigan Public Education Study Commission, "Local Administrative Structure", *The Improvement of Public Education in Michigan*, Chap. 8, Lansing, Mich.: the Commission, 1944.

⁵Maxwell A. Cameron, *op. cit.*, p. 86.

⁶William A. Plenderleith *et al.*, *The Plenderleith Report on King's County Educational Survey*, New Brunswick Department of Education, Fredericton, 1938, p. 58.

⁷Norman B. Baird, *op. cit.*, p. 217.

⁸Ontario Educational Association, *Resolutions Passed by the General Association of the Ontario Educational Association, Easter, 1938, and presented to the Department of Education, June, 1938* (Trustees' and Ratepayers' Department).

⁹Peter Sandiford, "Problems of Canadian Education", *The School*, XXIII (April, 1935), pp. 654-659.

¹⁰J. F. McGuire, Inspector of Public Schools in the Counties of Leeds and Grenville, in *Report of the Committee of Enquiry into the Cost of Education in the Province of Ontario*, p. 55.

¹¹Arkansas Education Association, *Handbook of Information on School District Reorganization Act—Proposed Initiated Act No. 1*, Little Rock, Ark.: the Association, 1946. (Mimeo.)

¹²John E. Brewton (director), *Public Education in Idaho*, Report of Idaho Education Survey Commission, Nashville, Tenn.: Division of Surveys and Field Studies, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1946, p. 517.

¹³Thomas C. Holy, "The Reorganization of School Districts," *American School Board Journal*, CX (April, 1945), pp. 39-41.

¹⁴B. A. Fletcher, *The Next Step in Canadian Education*, Toronto: Macmillan, 1939.

Scotia, but in that province the municipality is in most cases conterminous with the county.

4. As between a county and a township, the former may be the more satisfactory unit, since it usually has a population sufficient to support an adequate system of elementary and secondary schools. The boundaries of a county may sometimes divide communities, but they are more likely than those of a township to contain a single cultural or economic community.

5. In some cases, where the rural municipality is too small to support an adequate system of schools, and where the county is too large to be considered as a "community", authorities have suggested the use of the county as an intermediate unit with control over certain aspects of education. Peacock¹ favoured the use of the community-type district as the basic unit for the administration of both elementary and secondary education in New Brunswick, and the county as the supervisory and fiscal unit. For the Quebec Protestant system, Hepburn² recommended units larger than the county as intermediate units in charge of certain matters. The Iowa School Code Commission³ advised the strengthening of the county intermediate unit. Butterworth⁴ has recommended the establishment of intermediate units having a minimum population of 5,000. Reusser and Wochner,⁵ in recommending the county as the basic unit in Wyoming, have suggested intermediate units composed of several counties for the administration of certain phases of education, particularly business administration.

Status of Urban Centres

6. Opinion is divided as to the desirability of including urban municipalities in larger units of administration. Some authorities believe that all urban centres should be included; this is particularly true of those who favour the smaller community-type unit, in which the basic unit is the small city or town together with the surrounding hamlets, villages, and rural territory which serve and are served by it. These authorities, however, consider a large city as an entity in itself, although even in this case they would not necessarily recommend the city boundary as the school-unit boundary, especially if some of the suburban and rural population could be more satisfactorily served by the large city than by another community-type dis-

¹*Annual Report of the Department of Education of the Province of New Brunswick for the School Year Ended June 30th, 1941*, Fredericton, 1942, pp. 18-19.

²W. A. F. Hepburn, *Protestant Education in the Province of Quebec*, Report of the Quebec Protestant Education Survey, 1938.

³American Educational Research Association, *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. XVII, No. 2 (April, 1947), p. 169.

⁴Julian E. Butterworth, *Improving Educational Opportunities in Rural Areas*, Albany, N.Y.: University of the State of New York, Bulletin No. 1322, August, 1946, p. 155.

⁵Walter C. Reusser and Raymond W. Wochner, *School District Reorganization in Wyoming*, School Service Bureau Bulletin, Vol. 4, No. 4, Laramie, Wyo.: College of Education, University of Wyoming, 1945, p. 35.

trict. All those who favour the county or an equivalent unit as the basic unit suggest the inclusion in the county of all urban centres having less than a specified population or having a special status.¹

7. Cameron² included even the largest cities when he recommended that in British Columbia municipal boundaries be disregarded. But, in effect, he merely added rural territory to the city; he did not include the city in another unit. The Special Select Committee of the Manitoba Legislature recommended that towns and villages be included in, and cities excluded from, the larger units. Plenderleith³ recommended that New Brunswick cities and towns be given the option of joining the county units or remaining apart. The Alabama Educational Survey Commission⁴ and the Tennessee Survey Report⁵ advocated merging all school systems in each county into one unit. The Arkansas Education Association⁶ recommended incorporating all districts with fewer than 350 pupils into county rural districts. The Ohio School Survey Commission⁷ would exclude the 113 city and 88 village districts from the proposed 88 county units. Sandiford⁸ thought that in Ontario only those cities with populations over 30,000 or 40,000 should be excluded from county units. Those, like Dawson⁹ and Briscoe,¹⁰ who base the size of a satisfactory unit almost entirely on population or on other factors which vary with it are inclined to exempt those cities and towns which meet the standards laid down for a satisfactory local school unit. So also are those who believe there should be a difference between the education of rural and urban children. The Michigan Public Education Study Commission¹¹ recommended that all cities of 10,000 population and over retain independent status.

Population as a Basis

8. Many students of educational administration have defined a satisfactory unit of local school administration in terms of population or some factor which varies with population, such as enrolment, school census,

¹For example, incorporated cities falling below the specified minimum population. In some states there are cities whose charter grants them the right to administer education.

²Maxwell A. Cameron, *op. cit.*

³William A. Plenderleith *et al.*, *op. cit.*

⁴Alabama Educational Survey Commission, *Public Education in Alabama*, Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1945, pp. 224-228.

⁵Burgin E. Dossett, *Public Education in Tennessee* (summary), Tennessee Department of Education, 1946, p. 76.

⁶Arkansas Education Association, *op. cit.*

⁷Thomas C. Holy, *op. cit.*

⁸Peter Sandiford, *op. cit.*

⁹Howard A. Dawson, *Satisfactory Local School Units*, Nashville: Division of Surveys and Field Studies, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1934.

¹⁰A. O. Briscoe, Unpublished Thesis.

¹¹Michigan Public Education Study Commission, *The Improvement of Public Education in Michigan*, Ch. 8, "Local Administrative Structure", Lansing: the Commission, 1944.

average attendance, teaching units, or administrative and supervisory costs. Those who advocate the community-type district base their calculations on what they consider to be a population sufficient to support a secondary school with an adequate and diversified programme. They establish what they believe to be the minimum size of such a secondary school and, from a study of the percentage of the population which attends secondary school, they determine a minimum population figure. This has been done in connection with the formation of the enlarged high school districts recently established in Ontario. Three hundred secondary school students (grades IX-XIII) was adopted as the minimum number necessary for the satisfactory operation of a modern secondary school programme, a number which is equivalent to a total population of approximately 8,000. Baird,¹ also in relation to Ontario, estimated that a minimum total population of 5,000 to 7,000 would be required for the establishment of a satisfactory school unit. On the other hand, those who tend to favour a unit based on an adequate supervisory area base their calculations on such things as the number of teachers that can be most satisfactorily and economically supervised as a unit. Dawson,² basing his calculations on the number of classrooms which could be most economically and efficiently supervised, claimed that a total of 12,000, 6,000, or 2,000 pupils enrolled in grades I to XII—the choice depending on the type of administrative and supervisory organization desired—would be required for a satisfactory unit. He assumed that administrative and supervisory costs would amount to 7.7 per cent of the total annual current cost of education in the unit.

9. Briscoe³ found that a unit containing 200 or more teachers was best from the standpoint of economy, but that units with 70 to 80 teachers may provide adequate administrative and supervisory control with a relatively low percentage of current expense.

10. Other authorities have favoured the supervisory area as the basic unit of administration. The National Council of Chief State School Officers⁴ favoured "the pattern that will provide educational services effectively and economically under competent professional leadership . . ." The Ontario Teachers' Federation⁵ recommended that units coincide with "areas of supervision". The three Prairie Provinces of Canada have used the inspectorate as the basic unit in reorganization in many but by no means in all cases. They have tended to make the unit equivalent in size and population to existing inspectorates, but they have not made them coincide. The factors of social and economic homogeneity have been taken into considera-

¹Norman B. Baird, *op. cit.*

²Howard A. Dawson, *op. cit.*

³A. O. Briscoe, *op. cit.*

⁴National Council of Chief State School Officers, *Reports from the Buffalo Meeting*, reprint from "School Life", April and May, 1946.

⁵Brief 169, *Recommendations on Education*, submitted by The Ontario Teachers' Federation.

tion, and adjustments have been made in existing inspectorates. In several cases, two or more units compose one inspectorate, especially in sparsely settled areas. Similarly, in most county-unit systems in the United States the administrative and supervisory units coincide, though an exception occurs in Virginia, where several of the superintendents are the joint employees of two or more local authorities. This latter arrangement is also made in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, although in those provinces the superintendents are employees of the central authority. The trend in Canada in the formation of larger units is to give community or municipal boundaries preference over supervisory boundaries. The chief reason is, however, that the superintendent or inspector is almost always an appointee of the central rather than the local authority. If the superintendent were an employee of the local authority, the size of the administrative unit would, to a much greater extent, be determined by the size of an adequate supervisory unit.

Area as a Basis

11. Few authorities have regarded area as a major factor determining the size of a satisfactory local school unit. This is probably because in most situations maximum and minimum limits of area are set by an adherence to other principles. Ontario, however, because of the extent of its unorganized territory, is faced with the problem of deciding upon the maximum area of a satisfactory local school unit. Cameron¹ dealt most fully with this question. He stated that there are limits to largeness as well as to smallness of districts. He regarded the bounds of a unit comprehensible to the local people as the limit of largeness but pointed out that people in sparsely settled areas are accustomed to travelling great distances to deal with relatively minor matters. He favoured the extension of natural community boundaries, in such cases, to include isolated schools and as much as possible of the unorganized portions of the province. Thus, he claimed, as population spread, each school-age child would find himself within the jurisdiction of an authority charged with responsibility for providing him with school facilities.

Sub-units of the Basic Unit

12. Those who favour the community-type district as the basic unit of administration do not usually advocate sub-units. They recommend one authority to be in charge of all phases of education within the district. Thus Cameron² made no provision for administrative sub-units in British Columbia. Among those who favour the larger county-type district, opinion is divided on the question of sub-units. Strayer³ criticized the West Virginia

¹Maxwell A. Cameron, *op. cit.*

²*Ibid.*

³George D. Strayer, *A Digest of a Report of a Survey of Public Education in the State of West Virginia*, Legislative Interim Committee, State of West Virginia, 1945.

county-unit system because it permitted no sub-units and thus prevented wealthier communities from providing services above the level of those offered by the county authorities. The Manitoba Select Committee¹ recommended the retention of local boards "with certain specific and definite powers". Plenderleith² recommended sub-units for New Brunswick counties. The Research Committee of the Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association³ favoured the retention of local units, and this seems to have had its effect on legislation. The chief reasons advanced by those advocating sub-units with more than nominal powers are:

- (1) Local interest in and control over the schools of a community are necessary if decentralization of educational control is to be efficient.
- (2) Provision must be made so that communities may by their own efforts supplement the educational services made available in the larger unit as a whole.

Those who have advocated the abolition of existing sub-units or the organization of administration without sub-units have stressed efficiency as expressed in dollars and cents rather than community pride and participation in education. They have tended to favour more rather than less centralization.

Ad Hoc Boards or Municipal Councils

13. In Canada and the United States⁴ *ad hoc* bodies have been created to conduct the educational affairs of local school units. Most authorities in both countries endorse this system. Henry and Kerwin⁵ are almost alone in favouring the operation of schools, especially in cities, as a department of the civil government. On the other hand, both England and Scotland have replaced *ad hoc* boards by municipal councils functioning through appointed education committees. No Canadian educator advocates that municipal councils should control education, although in one brief presented to us it was urged that they have greater control over educational expenditures.⁶

14. From information that we have received in briefs and memoranda and from evidence given in public hearings we have concluded that there is no strong sentiment or valid argument in favour of discontinuing the administration of education in this province by *ad hoc* local education authorities. This conclusion has a direct bearing on local units of school administration, since the use of municipal councils as local education authorities would automatically fix the boundaries of units of administration.

¹Report of the Special Select Committee of the Manitoba Legislative Assembly on Education, p. 17.

²William A. Plenderleith *et al.*, *op. cit.*

³Schedule A of the Report of the Committee on School Administration to the Minister of Education for Saskatchewan, Regina: King's Printer, 1940, p. 65.

⁴With the exception of St. Paul, Minn., and Chattanooga, Tenn.

⁵Nelson B. Henry and Jerome G. Kerwin, *Schools and City Government*, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1938.

⁶Brief 6, *Provincial Grants to Education*, submitted by the Ontario Property Owners' Association and the Property Owners' Association of Toronto.

15. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that education in public and separate elementary schools, secondary schools, and junior colleges¹ be administered by ad hoc local education authorities;*
- (b) *that Section 44c of THE MUNICIPAL ACT be amended so as to remove from trustees of improvement districts all their powers and duties with respect to the administration of education except those normally exercised by municipal authorities.*

Elected or Appointed Boards

16. Another problem is whether education authorities should be elected or appointed. A decision must be made on this point before we can establish the criteria upon which to base our recommendations concerning the size and nature of a local education authority.

17. The opinion of most experts is that the best method of selecting local education authorities is popular election at large. This method gives local control of education directly to the ratepayers. Contrary to the opinion of those favouring the appointment of school board members, the practice of election does not appear to have resulted in the selection of less able representatives. It has been noted that local custom is a strong factor in determining the method of selection: people tend to be satisfied with the established practice, whether it is appointment or election. In Ontario both methods have been used; almost invariably elementary school boards have been elected and secondary school boards have been appointed. The majority of representations made to us in briefs and memoranda indicate that election is the method most acceptable to the people of this province. Traditionally, school trustees for elementary school purposes in Ontario have been elected, and we see no reason to change this procedure. In fact, a growing demand for elected boards to administer secondary education supports our conclusion that boards administering post-elementary education should also be elected. It is also our opinion that all qualified ratepayers, regardless of whether they are supporters of public or of separate elementary schools, should be eligible to vote. We recommend

that each local education authority² be elected by the qualified ratepayers who support any of the schools administered by it.

CRITERIA FOR THE NATURE AND SIZE OF THE LOCAL UNIT OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

18. As a result of our study of local units of school administration in this and other countries, consideration of suggestions in briefs and memoranda presented to us, and our analysis of the requirements of this province, we have set up certain criteria for the nature and size of local units of

¹Except junior colleges of education.

²With the exception of the public school board of a school section formed under Section 62a of *The Public Schools Act*.

school administration in Ontario. Some of these criteria relate to local education authorities, since the nature and size of a unit may depend upon the type of board by which it is administered.

Criterion 1: THE UNIT OF ADMINISTRATION MUST BE LARGE ENOUGH TO PROVIDE A SUFFICIENT NUMBER OF PUPILS TO WARRANT AT LEAST ONE SECONDARY SCHOOL OFFERING A SUFFICIENTLY DIVERSIFIED PROGRAMME TO PROVIDE FOR EACH PUPIL A COURSE SUITABLE TO HIS NEEDS.

19. This is necessary if secondary education is to be made, as far as possible, equally available to all children. Compulsory attendance until age 16 makes it necessary that there be available to each pupil a course of value to him whatever his aptitudes or ultimate goal. Our investigation leads us to conclude that a properly diversified programme cannot be operated efficiently in a secondary school with an enrolment of less than 300 pupils.

Criterion 2: THE UNIT OF ADMINISTRATION SHOULD, WHERE POSSIBLE, BE LARGE ENOUGH TO PROVIDE A SUFFICIENT NUMBER OF PUPILS TO WARRANT THE OPERATION IN IT OF A JUNIOR COLLEGE.

20. An enrolment of at least 300 pupils in a junior college is considered to be the minimum for efficient operation. Generally speaking, an administrative unit large enough to provide this number would have 900 pupils enrolled in secondary schools. There might well be parts of the province where it would be impossible to satisfy this requirement without sacrificing something else of equal importance. In these cases, some other arrangement, possibly the joint operation of one junior college for two or more units, might be made.

Criterion 3: THE UNIT OF ADMINISTRATION SHOULD BE LARGE ENOUGH TO CONSTITUTE A SUPERVISORY UNIT FOR ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

21. When units are smaller than an adequate supervisory area (usually considered to consist of 100 classrooms), local control of supervision can be achieved only by the joint employment of supervisors by several boards or by the creation of intermediate units and authorities for purposes of supervision.

Criterion 4: THE UNIT OF ADMINISTRATION SHOULD BE LARGE ENOUGH TO PERMIT DECENTRALIZATION THROUGH DELEGATING TO LOCAL AUTHORITIES A MEASURE OF FREEDOM WITH RESPECT TO COURSES OF STUDY, TEXTBOOKS, STANDARDS, AND SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.

22. To give effect to our recommendation that much of the control of the *interna* be decentralized, units of administration must be large enough in terms of pupils enrolled so that the administering board would have responsibilities important enough to attract to its membership men and women of outstanding worth, and have the resources to employ sufficiently qualified administrative, supervisory, and instructional personnel. It has

been claimed¹ that, in some decentralized systems, larger units of administration should be adopted in order to stop the trend toward centralization of the *interna*. We believe that Ontario must adopt them if important aspects of administration are to be decentralized, since broad powers cannot be given to some 4,000 local authorities in charge of small units. In order that the possibility of the development of an unbalanced programme may be avoided, such powers should be delegated with the proviso that major local decisions are subject to the approval of the Minister of Education.

Criterion 5: THE NUMBER OF LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES WITH WHICH THE CENTRAL AUTHORITY HAS TO DEAL SHOULD BE GREATLY REDUCED.

23. In 1948 there were 4,532 units of administration in the Province of Ontario. Since the board of each of these in which schools were operated reported directly to the Department of Education, the task of the accounting, statistical, and other branches was made needlessly burdensome.

Criterion 6: THE UNIT OF ADMINISTRATION SHOULD BE LARGE ENOUGH TO ENSURE THAT BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION MAY BE CENTRALIZED UNDER A FULL-TIME BUSINESS ADMINISTRATOR AND CLERICAL STAFF EMPLOYED BY THE LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITY.

24. Local centralization of business administration should result in considerable savings and in improved business practices. In order to operate economically for business administration, a unit should contain at least 5,000 pupils, representing, in terms of total population, 30,000 to 40,000 persons.

Criterion 7: THE UNIT OF ADMINISTRATION SHOULD BE LARGE ENOUGH SO THAT BY THE IMPOSITION OF A UNIFORM TAX RATE A CONSIDERABLE MEASURE OF EQUALIZATION MAY BE ACHIEVED DESPITE LOCAL INEQUALITIES IN FINANCIAL ABILITY TO PAY FOR EDUCATION.

25. Generally speaking, the larger the unit in geographical area the more diverse will be the types of communities it contains, particularly with regard to financial ability to support an adequate educational programme. Ideally, the entire area should be a single fiscal unit for the support of both elementary and post-elementary education. This is not practicable in Ontario. Some ratepayers who support secondary schools are separate elementary school supporters, and this makes it impossible to impose a uniform rate on all taxpayers in the unit to finance both elementary and secondary education. It is feasible, however, if assessments are equalized, to strike one uniform rate over the whole unit for the support of post-elementary education only and another for the support of at least a minimum programme in all public elementary schools.

Criterion 8: THE UNIT OF ADMINISTRATION SHOULD BE LARGE ENOUGH TO PERMIT THE ADMINISTRATION OF ALL FORMS OF PUBLICLY SUP-

¹Howard A. Dawson, *op. cit.*

PORTED EDUCATION—FROM NURSERY SCHOOL THROUGH JUNIOR COLLEGE—BY A SINGLE LOCAL AUTHORITY.

26. The separation which has existed between elementary and secondary education in the past is largely the result of historical influences and has been perpetuated by the existence of Roman Catholic separate schools in the elementary school field. This last factor makes it impossible to concentrate the entire administration in a single authority, since there must always be members of the authority who will function in matters relating to post-elementary education but not in those relating to public elementary education. The form of unified administration which is achieved at present in those cities and towns having boards of education could, however, be extended throughout the province.

Criterion 9: PROVISIONS SHOULD BE MADE TO ENSURE THAT CONTROL OF EDUCATION IS NOT REMOVED TOO FAR FROM THE LOCAL COMMUNITY.

27. In order to put into practice our recommendations relating to the decentralization of *interna* and the local centralization of *externa*, we are faced with an unavoidable paradox: in order to give more real control of education to local authorities it is necessary to take from many small communities powers previously exercised. On the other hand, since our desire is to create and foster local interest in education, we must not take the control of education too far from the people who are most vitally concerned. But perhaps the loss to the small community is more apparent than real. In spite of the great decentralization of certain phases of education in the past, local interest in the school has not been generally noteworthy. In any case, safeguards must be provided against the tendency, resulting from the merging of previously independent small units into larger units, for local initiative to die out. Both a representative of this Commission and independent educational surveys have found, for example, that in some American states where the county is the basic school unit small communities with a higher-than-average ability to pay for education have in many cases contented themselves, or have been obliged to be content, with the minimum programme offered by the larger unit, usually on a lower scale than that which these communities had previously been able to afford. Provision should be made for local deviations from, and additions to, the minimum programme provided by the basic unit.

Criterion 10: THE UNIT OF ADMINISTRATION SHOULD BE FORMED WITH DUE REGARD TO TOPOGRAPHICAL FEATURES, ECONOMIC COMMUNITIES, COMMUNITY OF INTERESTS, AND AVAILABILITY OF TRANSPORTATION.

28. Large lakes, unbridged rivers, and large expanses of unbroken forest are much more apt to hinder the administration of education than are county or township boundaries, and due regard to such geographical factors should be given in forming a unit of administration. The location and condition of

main traffic arteries are also important. Probably of even greater importance is the strength of the community of interests. The area should be an economic community—such as a city, town, or village, with its economic hinterland, or an area where the people earn their living from a basic industry—or it should be a community in some other sense. It is not essential that the unit be confined to one type of community; in order to satisfy other criteria, it may frequently be necessary to include several “communities” in one unit.

Criterion 11: THE UNIT OF ADMINISTRATION SHOULD, OTHER CRITERIA BEING SATISFIED, CORRESPOND CLOSELY TO SOME RECOGNIZED MUNICIPAL DIVISION OF THE PROVINCE.

29. So long as the municipality shares in the responsibility for the educational programme in some such way as through the financing of education, it is obviously advantageous that the boundaries of the school unit and of the municipality should coincide.

Criterion 12: THE UNIT OF ADMINISTRATION SHOULD BE LARGE ENOUGH SO THAT ALTERATIONS WITHIN IT, IN BOTH ELEMENTARY AND POST-ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AREAS, CAN BE MADE WITH EASE WHEN CHANGES IN POPULATION, ROADS, OR MEANS OF TRANSPORTATION DEMAND OR PERMIT.

30. When a unit of administration is based on a population sufficient only to provide one satisfactory school, the unit itself becomes unsatisfactory as soon as there is a substantial increase or decrease in the number of pupils. It becomes necessary for the central authority or some intermediate education authority¹ to provide remedial action, which may be long delayed and, in some cases, held up by appeals. It is obviously important for the board of a unit of administration to place its schools strategically so as best to serve the needs of the unit, and to consider the possibility of change.

Criterion 13: THE BOUNDARIES OF UNITS OF ADMINISTRATION SHOULD BE SO ARRANGED THAT NATURAL ATTENDANCE AREAS ARE NOT DIVIDED BETWEEN TWO OR MORE UNITS.

31. This is desirable from both an ideal and a practical point of view.

Criterion 14: THE UNIT OF ADMINISTRATION SHOULD INCLUDE ALL NATURAL CENTRES OF POPULATION, WITH THE EXCEPTION OF CITIES, LOCATED WITHIN ITS BOUNDARIES.

32. Opinion is divided as to whether cities should be included in larger units of administration. There are few valid arguments favouring the inclusion of cities with populations greater than 75,000. There are arguments both for and against the inclusion of cities with a smaller population. Of the reasons advanced in favour of forming cities with less than 75,000 population into independent units for both post-elementary and public elementary education, the most important are as follows:

(1) All cities having 1,200 or more pupils enrolled in grades VII-XIII

¹Such as the county or township council, in Ontario.

inclusive, satisfy all our criteria and hence can be considered as satisfactory units for public elementary and post-elementary education.

- (2) For generations cities in Ontario have been functioning satisfactorily as units for the administration of both public elementary and post-elementary education.
- (3) In only two cases would the granting of independent status to a city in Ontario result in the county or district in which it is located being too small, from the point of view of the number of pupils enrolled, to operate as a satisfactory post-elementary school unit.
- (4) If all cities, counties, and districts of the province are listed in descending order according to the number of post-elementary school pupils enrolled in 1947, the cities are near the top of the list. It is difficult to justify withholding independent status from cities which have more pupils enrolled than have many of the counties and districts.

Criterion 15: EVERY PART OF THE PROVINCE SHOULD BE INCLUDED IN SOME UNIT OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION.

33. Under a system of compulsory school attendance, the education of each child, no matter where he resides in the province, should be the responsibility of some authority charged with the provision of educational facilities.

Criterion 16: THE UNIT OF ADMINISTRATION SHOULD BE LARGE ENOUGH SO THAT SPECIAL SERVICES CAN BE EFFICIENTLY AND ECONOMICALLY PROVIDED AND OPERATED BY THE LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITY.

34. At present the great majority of administrative units are too small to warrant the employment of the personnel necessary for the administration of such services as special subject supervision, library service, audio-visual aids, the education of atypical children, and attendance. The results have been as follows: only larger urban communities have provided such services; where an attempt has been made to provide such services in smaller units, co-operation among a large number of small independent authorities has often been difficult to achieve; and there has been a tendency to centralize the administration of such services under the central authority.

Criterion 17: A LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITY MUST BE ENTIRELY COMPOSED OF REPRESENTATIVES ELECTED BY QUALIFIED RATEPAYERS SUPPORTING ANY ONE TYPE OF SCHOOL ADMINISTERED BY IT.

35. In Ontario this principle is operative at present only with respect to authorities administering public or separate schools. If fully applied, it would mean that all ratepayers of the unit, not otherwise disqualified, would be eligible to vote at the election of members of the post-elementary school authority, regardless of whether they were supporters of public or separate schools in the elementary school field. This appears to be the equitable way of selecting such boards.

Criterion 18: MEMBERS OF A LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITY WHO ARE SUPPORTERS OF SEPARATE SCHOOLS MUST HAVE NO VOICE IN THE

CONDUCT OF PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, EXCEPT WITH THE CONSENT OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SUPPORTERS OF THE UNIT AND THEN ONLY WITH RESPECT TO MATTERS WHICH RELATE TO POST-ELEMENTARY AND PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN COMMON.

36. The only problem in this connection will be found where one local education authority administers both post-elementary education and public elementary education. Where a board of education now operates in a unit in which a separate school exists, those members¹ of the board who are separate school supporters are precluded by law from taking part in proceedings of the board which relate exclusively to public elementary schools. They do, however, take part in those proceedings of the board which concern matters common to public elementary and post-elementary education, such as the appointment and salary of a director of education, a business administrator, and other officials who have joint jurisdiction over post-elementary and public elementary schools. They also take part in discussions relating to the provision of special services for both types of schools. Since *The Boards of Education Act* requires the elected members of a board of education to be public school ratepayers, and since the number of appointed separate school representatives is limited, there is no possibility of the majority of the board being separate school supporters. This situation might arise, however, if members of boards of education were not required to be public school supporters and all ratepayers who support post-elementary schools were eligible to vote, as will be the case if our recommendation is implemented. For this reason, we feel that the principle followed before 1948² should remain in force. The consent of the public school ratepayers or their elected representatives should be required for the formation of a board of education in which separate school representatives have a voice in the appointment of officials, as mentioned above, and in the conduct of matters concerning both types of schools. This is tantamount to saying that the establishment of such boards of education cannot be made mandatory by legislation; it can only be effected through voluntary action on the part of the public school supporters concerned.

Criterion 19: SEPARATE SCHOOL CORPORATIONS MUST RETAIN THEIR STATUTORY FREEDOM OF ACTION IN RELATION TO AUTHORITIES ADMINISTERING POST-ELEMENTARY EDUCATION AND TO THOSE ADMINISTERING PUBLIC ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

37. The discussion leading to the decision embodied in this criterion may be found in the chapters relating to separate schools.

Criterion 20: ANY PLAN OF REORGANIZATION RECOMMENDED SHOULD BE FEASIBLE BY WAY OF LEGISLATION AND POSSIBLE OF REALIZATION WITHIN THE FORESEEABLE FUTURE.

¹Separate school representatives are appointed.

²Between 1911 and 1948, the formation of a municipal board of education was dependent upon a majority vote, favourable to it, of the public school ratepayers of the unit concerned. See Chapter VIII.

ALTERNATIVE PLANS FOR THE REORGANIZATION OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

38. Although Criteria 17, 18, and 19 relate directly to local education authorities rather than to local units of administration, they are important in determining the nature of the local unit of school administration. The situation in Ontario with respect to the nature of the local unit, owing to the existence of two types of publicly supported elementary schools, makes it impossible to disregard them. Elsewhere, the problem is relatively simple, namely, to determine the size and nature of the most satisfactory local unit for the administration of all phases of publicly supported education below the university level. In this province the problem is complicated by the fact that all ratepayers are supporters of post-elementary schools, but not all are supporters of public elementary schools.

39. Of the 20 criteria we have formulated, only 4 contain the word "must"—1, 17, 18, and 19; in the others "should" is used. The present units of administration in the province satisfy only 2 of the 4 criteria considered "musts". Not even all of the newly formed high school districts are large enough to warrant the establishment of a 300-pupil secondary school (Criterion 1), and only a small minority of the boards administering post-elementary education are entirely selected at elections at which all the qualified ratepayers who support any one type of school administered by them are eligible to vote (Criterion 17). Separate school corporations are completely independent of any other local education authority (Criterion 19), and separate school supporters who are members of boards of education have no voice in the conduct of public elementary schools except in matters common to public and post-elementary schools and then only when the public school ratepayers or their representatives have voted on the formation of a board of education.¹

40. The fact that Criterion 18 is a "must" makes it impossible to recommend the mandatory establishment of units for the administration of both public elementary and post-elementary education by a single local authority (Criterion 8). To permit achievement of a unified administration of elementary and post-elementary education, we later recommend, in accordance with our criteria, the mandatory establishment of distinct units of administration for post-elementary and public elementary education and a provision for unification through voluntary action of the public school ratepayers concerned.

41. A satisfactory unit of administration for post-elementary education might be sought in the enlarged high school districts formed in the province during the past five years. Since they were formed on the basis of the operation of a secondary school with a minimum of 300 pupils enrolled,

¹Except in the case of boards of education established by county councils since 1948, and those established by municipal councils since 1949.

they satisfy Criterion 1. In most cases, however, Criterion 2, relating to junior colleges, is not satisfied, nor is 3, relating to supervision. Criterion 5 is partially satisfied, as are 7, 9, 10, 13, and 14; but Criteria 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 11, 12, 15, and 16 are not. The latter group of criteria seems to make necessary some unit approximating in size the average Ontario county. This suggests that the counties, cities, and territorial districts might be the basic units for the administration of post-elementary education. They will satisfy the first sixteen criteria with the possible exception of 10 and 13. Another alternative is to form, on the basis set out in Criterion 10, and without regard to municipal boundaries, large high school districts approximating the size of a county. This will not, however, satisfy Criterion 11.

42. In spite of these difficulties, it is possible to establish units—modified cities, counties, and territorial districts—which will satisfy all the criteria for suitable units for the administration of post-elementary education, namely, the first sixteen, excepting Criterion 8. Municipal boundaries of cities, counties, and districts will be accepted when they do not cut across natural community lines, transportation routes, and geographical conformations; in other cases they will be modified to conform to these factors. Such units will also be large enough to function as areas of supervision for elementary school purposes and will permit co-operation between post-elementary and public elementary authorities—apparently the only acceptable way in which a unified system can be achieved in this province (Criterion 8).

43. In seeking to determine the proper nature and size of units for the administration of public elementary education, we considered the advisability of having units conterminous with those for post-elementary education. If this were done, Criteria 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16 would be satisfied, and a voluntary union of the administration of post-elementary and public elementary education would be facilitated, thus satisfying Criterion 8. However, Criterion 9, relating to local control, would be seriously violated, especially in relation to towns and larger villages. The concept of community (Criterion 10), an important consideration in the elementary school field, would also remain unsatisfied. Many of the other criteria can be satisfied by public elementary units not as large as the county or district. Our investigations indicate that the township school area plan is not fully satisfactory for the administration of public elementary education: the areas as at present organized are frequently too small; and large “pockets” in different parts of the province are not organized into larger units. We believe that these weaknesses will be remedied if each of the larger units for post-elementary education, which we later recommend be established, is sub-divided into large units for the administration of public elementary education.

RECOMMENDATIONS RELATING TO LOCAL UNITS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Post-elementary Education

44. We recommend

- (a) *that the entire province be divided by the Minister into units for the administration of post-elementary education;*
- (b) *that each such unit be known as a "region";*
- (c) *that, subject to the modifications outlined below, the boundaries of regions approximate those of existing cities, counties, and territorial districts.*

45. The power to determine the types and method of establishment of local units of school administration rests ultimately with the Legislature; the powers relating to the establishment, disestablishment, and alteration of boundaries of school units now exercised by county and township councils are delegated to them by Acts of the Legislature and can be increased, decreased, or abolished by further legislation. There would, therefore, be no constitutional bar to the determination of the boundaries of regions by the Legislature or by the Minister. But it does not appear to us that there is much to be gained by such a method of establishment. We are confident that more satisfactory results can be attained if the boundaries of regions are determined locally, so long as certain principles, based on our criteria, are followed and the approval of the Minister is obtained.

46. We therefore recommend

- (a) *that a "consultative committee" be constituted in each city, administrative county, and territorial district;*
- (b) *that each city consultative committee be composed of appointees of the city council and appointees of the Minister;*
- (c) *that each county consultative committee be composed of appointees of the county council—and of the council of each separated town within the county, where such exist—and appointees of the Minister;*
- (d) *that each district consultative committee be composed of appointees of the councils of those towns, villages, and organized townships having a population of 1,000 or over, and appointees of the Minister—some of whom should be representative of the smaller municipalities, unorganized townships, and unsurveyed territory;*
- (e) *that each consultative committee be required to confer with the committee of each of the contiguous cities, counties, and districts to determine by mutual agreement, in the light of the instructions given below, the most satisfactory boundaries for the region based on the city, county, or district concerned; to determine the division of the proposed region into large units to be known as "public school areas",¹ for the administration of public elementary schools; and to submit their recommendations to the Minister of Education.*

¹See the section of this chapter immediately following.

47. Each consultative committee, after consultation with other committees, will have to consider the following possibilities and recommend one or more of them:

- (1) That the boundaries of the region coincide with those of the city, county, or territorial district.
- (2) That all, a part, or parts of the city, county, or district be included in another region or regions.
- (3) That all, a part, or parts of another city or cities, county or counties, or district or districts be added to the city, county, or district concerned to form one region.

Most consultative committees, especially those in counties and districts, will probably recommend a combination of the second and third possibilities. Thus, a consultative committee might recommend that part of one adjoining county or district be included in its region by agreement, and similarly that a part of the territory of its county or district be incorporated in the region based on an adjoining city, county, or district.

48. We further recommend

that, in recommending the boundaries of regions, consultative committees be guided by the following principles:

- (a) *each region should have a total prospective annual post-elementary school enrolment of 1,200 pupils;*
- (b) *if a county or district is too small to provide a prospective annual enrolment of 1,200 post-elementary school pupils, it should be joined with a neighbouring city, county, or district to form one region, unless arrangements can be made to incorporate sufficient territory of neighbouring counties or districts to bring the total prospective annual enrolment of post-elementary school pupils up to the minimum;*
- (c) *if a county or district is too small to provide the minimum prospective post-elementary school enrolment, and, being geographically isolated,¹ cannot be joined with neighbouring cities, counties, or districts, it might be established as a region;*
- (d) *counties and territorial districts having a prospective annual enrolment of 6,000 or more post-elementary school pupils and consisting of at least two distinct large communities may be formed, subject to other criteria being satisfied, into two or more regions;*
- (e) *city, county, district, and other municipal boundaries should be disregarded if a strict adherence to them would mean the division of a community, the splitting of natural attendance areas, or disregard for geographical barriers or transportation routes;*
- (f) *public meetings should be called by consultative committees for discussion of the proposed boundaries of regions and public school areas.*

¹E.g. Prince Edward County and Rainy River District.

49. In our opinion, only in the case of York County would a recommendation for division into more than one region be warranted. It might be possible to make the whole county, exclusive of the city of Toronto, one region; but there is a great difference between the almost completely urban southern half of the county and the completely rural northern half. Negotiations for the formation of a metropolitan area or county in the Toronto area may solve this problem by making Toronto and its 12 surrounding municipalities one unit for educational purposes.¹ In this case the remainder of the county should, of course, form one region. If, however, no changes in municipal organization are made in the Toronto area, there are three possibilities: the Toronto City Region might include the 12 surrounding municipalities, which, if the two consultative committees concerned so recommend, could remain as units for the administration of public elementary education; the 12 suburban municipalities might form one educational region; or York County might be divided into 5 regions, somewhat as follows: (1) the York Township Region, composed of York Township; (2) the West York Region, composed of Etobicoke Township, Swansea, Mimico, New Toronto, and Long Branch; (3) the North York Region, composed of North York Township, Weston, and Forest Hill Village; (4) the East York Region, composed of East York Township, Leaside, and that part of Scarborough Township included in the present Scarborough high school district; and (5) the York Rural Region, composed of the remainder of the county. Each of these divisions would be an adequate region on the basis of the criteria which we have previously enunciated and would stand well up in the list of all the regions in the province as far as school enrolment is concerned. However, it is doubtful whether this would be the best solution of the difficulties of financing education under which these municipalities at present labour. In our opinion the first suggestion, that Toronto and the surrounding 12 municipalities be organized as one region for post-elementary school purposes, is the best.

50. Although the chief functions of city, county, and district consultative committees will be discharged when regions and public school areas are formed, there will continue to be a need for consultative bodies of some kind to advise municipal and county councils and local education authorities on matters of mutual concern. Such bodies, we feel, should be constituted on a regional rather than on a city, county, or district basis. We therefore recommend

that, following the formation of regions and public school areas, there be appointed regional consultative committees, in such manner as the Legislature may determine but including appointees of the Minister and of local government authorities and local education authorities

¹In making these observations we are not expressing any opinion as to the merits or demerits of the present proposals for amalgamation for municipal purposes.

having jurisdiction within the region; and that it be the duty of each committee to make recommendations on specific problems submitted to it by a regional board, a public school board, a separate school board, or a municipal or county council.

51. We realize that great changes will occur in population and in means and routes of transportation, and we feel that the structure of administrative units must be elastic enough to permit adaptations made necessary by such changes. We therefore recommend

- (a) that, after a period of five years has elapsed and thereafter every ten years, boundaries of regions be subject to revision by the Minister, following recommendation by regional consultative committees;*
- (b) that, at any time, following a favourable vote of the ratepayers in each region on a plebiscite held for the purpose, any two or more regions may be constituted by the Minister as a single region to be operated under the type of administrative organization determined by the vote of the ratepayers at the time of the plebiscite.*

Public Elementary Education

52. Many factors must be considered in determining the type of unit most suitable for the administration of public elementary schools. The unit should be understandable to the local people as a "community" in terms of economic activities, trade centres, lines of highway communication, and municipal boundaries. It must have sufficient resources to enable it to finance its own capital expenditures, and its tax base should be broad enough to allow for minor inequalities in ability to pay for education. Every part of the province where the operation of a school is feasible should be included in some elementary school unit. Cities should continue to be units for the administration of public elementary schools, as should larger towns and villages. Smaller towns and villages may form the nuclei of such units, especially where they are the natural community centres for surrounding rural territory.

53. We feel, however, that local interest in, and control of, elementary education are so important that they outweigh purely administrative convenience. There are disadvantages in removing the control of its school from even the smallest community. This is especially true of those rural school sections which, either because of greater wealth or greater interest, have provided in the past a programme above the average in terms of qualifications of teachers, accommodation, equipment, and special services. Although for the general good of the larger community such sections should rightly become parts of larger units for administrative purposes, we believe that they should, at the same time, retain their identity as sub-units with at least advisory powers.

54. We recommend

- (a) *that, for public elementary school purposes, each region be divided into units to be known as public school areas;*
- (b) *that, in recommending the boundaries of public school areas, consultative committees be guided by the following principles:*
 - (i) *a region whose boundaries coincide with those of a city should be one public school area;*
 - (ii) *a region which consists of a city and all or part of the surrounding county or territorial district should be one public school area, or be divided into two or more public school areas one of which should be the city proper;*
 - (iii) *in all regions*
 - (1) *towns and villages with population of at least 3,000 may be constituted public school areas;*
 - (2) *other parts of such regions should be formed into public school areas each with a minimum area of 80 square miles and, except with the permission of the Minister, an enrolment of at least 150 public elementary school pupils;*
- (c) *that from time to time boundaries of public school areas be subject to revision by the Minister, following recommendation by regional consultative committees.*

CHAPTER XI

LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES IN THE PROPOSED REORGANIZATION

TYPES OF LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES FOR ONTARIO

1. We have recommended that each local education authority be an *ad hoc* body elected by ratepayers who support any type of school operated by it. All possibilities were canvassed to find a formula by which in any given area all forms of publicly supported education below the university level might be administered by a board of education; but we found no means acceptable to the members of the Commission generally of integrating separate schools into such an organization. The only alternative was to seek a means whereby post-elementary and public elementary education in a region might, with the consent of the public school ratepayers, be co-ordinated under a board of education.

2. In most city regions public school ratepayers will wish to continue a co-ordinated administration of public elementary and post-elementary education. If this is to be possible, provision must be made for a board with full jurisdiction over public elementary and post-elementary education. However, since this would mean the discontinuance of public school boards, such a type of administration would not be acceptable in most of the county and territorial district regions. The most satisfactory arrangement would seem to be to assign to the authority in charge of post-elementary education certain powers relative to matters of common concern to all public school boards of the region. Thus, the region would become the basic unit for post-elementary education and an intermediate unit for public elementary education; and public school areas would remain the basic units for public elementary education. But in all regions, city or otherwise, a particular type of administrative organization should be instituted only after the public school ratepayers of the region have indicated that they favour it. For those regions where neither of these alternatives is desired, recourse must be had to two types of boards, independent of each other: one for the administration of public elementary education; and the other for the administration of post-elementary education.

3. We recommend

that, at the time of the first municipal election following establishment of the boundaries of a region, public school ratepayers vote on a plebiscite to select from among the following the type of administration desired: (1) Plan A, Regional Board of Education (Urban Type); (2) Plan B, Regional Board of Education (Rural Type); (3) Plan C, Autonomous¹ Post-elementary School Boards and Public School Boards.

Plan A. Regional Board of Education (Urban Type)

4. We recommend

that, where public school ratepayers of a region select Plan A as the desired type of administrative organization, one "regional board of education" have jurisdiction in the region, subject to the Acts and regulations, over all matters relating to the local administration of public elementary and post-elementary education.

5. Under Plan A the organization would be similar to that of municipal boards of education which have been established in many cities of the province. It may reasonably be expected that most city regions and some of the smaller county or district regions will adopt this plan. It can be adapted to satisfy all the criteria we have laid down for a satisfactory unit of administration for all types of schools below the university level, with the exception of separate schools. Such a regional board of education should be qualified to assume responsibility, subject to the approval of the Minister, for greater control over the *externa* and *interna* of education.

Plan B. Regional Board of Education (Rural Type)

6. We recommend

(a) *that, where public school ratepayers of a region select Plan B as the desired type of administrative organization, one "regional board of education" have jurisdiction in the region, subject to the Acts and regulations, over all matters connected with the local administration of post-elementary education and over certain matters hereinafter specified relating to the administration of public elementary education;*

(b) *that, for each public school area of the region, a local education authority, to be known as a "public school board", have jurisdiction over those matters relating to the local administration of public elementary education not assigned to the regional board of education.*

7. The essential feature of this plan is that public school boards in the region will have authority over those matters relating to the local admin-

¹"Autonomous" as used in this report denotes that a local education authority is independent of other local education authorities.

istration of public elementary education not assigned to the regional board of education. Although the plan is designed to meet in particular the needs of rural areas, some city regions may wish to operate their schools under this type of administrative organization.

Plan C. Autonomous Post-Elementary School Boards and Public School Boards

8. We recommend

- (a) *that, where public school ratepayers of a region select Plan C as the desired type of administrative organization, one "regional post-elementary school board" have jurisdiction in the region, subject to the Acts and regulations, over all matters relating to the local administration of post-elementary education;*
- (b) *that, in each public school area of the region, a "public school board" have jurisdiction, subject to the Acts and regulations, over all matters relating to public elementary education.*

9. Each of the three plans satisfies Criteria 17, 18, and 19 as outlined in the preceding chapter. As a type of administrative organization, Plan C leaves much to be desired. Judged on the basis of criteria generally accepted as valid, its chief disadvantages are as follows:

- (1) It means complete separation of the administration of elementary and post-elementary education at the local level.
- (2) Decentralization in the control of the *interna* of education on a satisfactory basis is more difficult to achieve.
- (3) Employment of a local director of education and staff for the supervision of all public elementary and post-elementary schools in a region is impracticable.
- (4) Local centralization of business administration under a locally appointed business administrator and staff for all public elementary and post-elementary schools of a region cannot be attained.
- (5) Establishment within a region of a minimum programme of services for all public elementary schools and the distribution of financial support in such a way that the burden falls equally on all public school supporters are impossible.
- (6) Regional administration of special services for both public elementary and post-elementary schools and the co-ordination of transportation systems within a region can be achieved only through agreements among a number of local authorities.

We do not favour Plan C. It is submitted only because we believe that under the conditions existing in this province it is impossible to limit the choice to Plans A and B. It is our hope that the educational advantages of Plans A and B will influence public school supporters to adopt, where circumstances permit, one of these plans.

POWERS AND DUTIES OF LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES IN ONTARIO
UNDER THE PROPOSED REORGANIZATION

10. In considering the distribution of powers as between the central authority, the regional authority, and the public school authority, our aim has been to achieve, at the provincial level, as much decentralization as is consonant with an articulated provincial system, and, at the local level, as much centralization as is consonant with the maintenance of local interest. Our recommendations are formulated with these ends in view.

11. For those regions in which Plan C has been selected, we recommend

- (a) *that with reference to post-elementary education, a regional post-elementary school board exercise the following powers and discharge the following duties:*
- (i) *provide a sufficient number of schools for the education in secondary schools of all young persons between ages 12 and 16 for whose education it is responsible;*
 - (ii) *take the necessary steps to assure a reasonable equity of opportunity in so far as availability of secondary school facilities is concerned;*
 - (iii) *provide a sufficient number of junior colleges, or junior college departments in conjunction with secondary schools, offering two-year courses in university-preparatory and vocational education for all young persons resident in the region who have passed junior college entrance examinations and who are desirous of pursuing such courses;*
 - (iv) *make such two-year courses available on a reasonable basis of equality for all students entitled to attend them;*
 - (v) *provide, either in a junior college maintained by it, or by arrangement, in a junior college in some other region, sufficient places for students in the third year of junior college to accommodate all those young persons who are*
 - (1) *qualified for admission to and desirous of pursuing such a course;*
 - (2) *willing and able where necessary to pay their travelling expenses to and from, or board and lodging at, the centre where the junior college is located;¹ and*
 - (3) *willing and able to pay such resident or non-resident tuition fees as the board concerned may determine, subject to the approval of the Minister,¹*
 - (vi) *appoint, transfer, and dismiss or accept the resignation of a secretary-treasurer and other personnel necessary for the administration of post-elementary education in the region;*

¹Subject to the provision of a system of generous scholarships and bursaries sufficient to enable deserving students to attend third-year junior college courses.

- (vii) *locate, finance (subject to the approval of the local government authorities¹ concerned), construct, and maintain secondary schools and junior colleges and other buildings for school purposes;*
- (viii) *delimit attendance areas for post-elementary education, and alter the boundaries of such areas from time to time as demanded by circumstances;*
- (ix) *appoint, transfer, and dismiss or accept the resignation of members of the staffs of post-elementary schools;*
- (x) *adapt, subject to the approval of the Minister, the provincial curriculum for post-elementary schools to meet the particular needs of the region;*
- (xi) *where necessary, provide transportation, subsistence allowances or dormitories; and pay non-resident fees on behalf of post-elementary school students, with the exception of those in third year of junior college;*
- (xii) *provide, at its discretion, special services, such as*
 - (1) *audio-visual aids,*
 - (2) *library service,*
 - (3) *health services in conjunction with other agencies,*
 - (4) *art and music supervision,*
 - (5) *part-time and adult education, and*
 - (6) *cafeterias or facilities for school lunches;*
- (xiii) *appoint, transfer, and dismiss or accept the resignation of attendance officers and visiting teachers;²*
- (xiv) *apply for general legislative grants; and requisition from the local government bodies³ concerned the remaining sums necessary to finance the post-elementary school programme, or, in unorganized townships and unsurveyed territory, levy and raise such sums by a uniform rate based on equalized assessment;⁴*
- (xv) *perform such other duties and enjoy such other powers as may from time to time be delegated to it by the Minister;*
- (b) *that, with respect to public elementary education, each public school board exercise the following powers and discharge the following duties:*
 - (i) *appoint, transfer, and dismiss or accept the resignation of teachers in the public schools of its area;*
 - (ii) *apply for general legislative grants; and requisition from the*

¹See subsequent paragraphs of this chapter.

²See Chapter XII.

³See subsequent paragraphs of this chapter.

⁴In unorganized townships and unsurveyed territory, school boards should be granted taxing powers.

local government bodies concerned¹ the remaining sums necessary to finance the programme of public elementary education, or, in unorganized townships and unsurveyed territory, levy and raise such sums by a uniform rate based on an equalized assessment;²

- (iii) determine the boundaries of attendance areas within the public school area, and alter them from time to time as conditions demand;*
- (iv) where deemed advisable, make arrangements for pupils to attend schools in neighbouring public school areas;*
- (v) locate, finance (subject to the approval of the local government authorities³ concerned), construct, maintain, and close schools; or establish central schools and other buildings for school purposes;*
- (vi) adapt, subject to the approval of the Minister, the provincial curriculum for elementary schools to meet the special needs of the area;*
- (vii) appoint, transfer, dismiss or accept the resignation of administrative and clerical staff and other personnel;*
- (viii) perform such other duties and enjoy such other powers as may from time to time be delegated to it by the Minister.*

12. For those regions in which Plan A has been selected, we recommend that a regional board of education (urban type) exercise all the powers and duties of a regional post-elementary school board and of a public school board as outlined in the preceding paragraph and, in addition, the following powers and duties:

- (i) appoint, subject to the approval of the Minister, a regional director of education,⁴ a business administrator,⁴ and assistant directors,⁴ to be charged with the general supervision and administration of education in the post-elementary and public elementary schools of the region;*
- (ii) submit for the Minister's approval, on the recommendation of the regional director, curricula, courses of study, and textbooks for all regional schools, based on the required provincial curriculum and list of approved texts;*
- (iii) supervise instruction in the public elementary and secondary schools of the region;*
- (iv) provide, at its discretion, additional special services and co-ordinate special services in post-elementary and public elementary schools.*

¹See subsequent paragraphs of this chapter.

²In unorganized townships and unsurveyed territory, school boards should be granted taxing powers.

³See subsequent paragraphs of this chapter.

⁴See Chapter XIII.

13. For those regions in which Plan B has been selected, we recommend
(a) *that a regional board of education (rural type) exercise the powers and discharge the duties relating to post-elementary education outlined in paragraph 11 for a regional post-elementary school board and, in addition, exercise the following powers and discharge the following duties:*

- (i) *appoint, subject to the approval of the Minister, a regional director of education, a business administrator, and assistant directors, to be charged with the administration and general supervision of education in the post-elementary and public elementary schools of the region;*
- (ii) *submit for the Minister's approval, on the recommendation of the regional director, curricula, courses of study, and textbooks for all regional post-elementary and public elementary schools, based on the required provincial minimum curriculum and list of approved texts;*
- (iii) *provide, at its discretion, additional special services and co-ordinate special services in post-elementary and public elementary schools;*
- (iv) *adopt, in consultation with public school boards, a regional minimum programme to be offered by every public elementary school in the region and financed by a common tax rate, based on an equalized assessment, on all public school rate-payers in the region;*
- (v) *provide, at the request and at the expense of the public school area concerned, transportation of public elementary school pupils in excess of that provided for in the regional minimum programme;*
- (vi) *approve or send back for revision all public elementary school budgets, and prepare the regional public elementary school budget and the post-elementary school budget;¹*
- (vii) *apply for general legislative grants; and requisition from the municipalities forming part of the region the remaining sums necessary to meet the budgets of the board, or, in unorganized townships and unsurveyed territory, levy and raise such sums by a uniform rate based on equalized assessment;*
- (viii) *advise public school boards on the procedure to be followed in having debentures issued on their behalf;*
- (ix) *record all appointments, dismissals, resignations, and transfers of teachers and other personnel in the public school areas of the region;*

¹The latter will cover the full cost of post-elementary education, including a due proportion of the cost of special services, administration, and supervision; and, in addition, the full cost of enforcing compulsory school attendance in the publicly supported schools of the region (see Chapter XII).

- (x) *appoint, transfer, and dismiss or accept the resignation of attendance officers and visiting teachers;*¹
- (b) *that the public school board of a public school area operating under a regional board of education (rural type) exercise the following powers and discharge the following duties:*
 - (i) *appoint, transfer, and discharge or accept the resignation of teachers in public elementary schools, on the recommendation of the regional director, and report appointments, transfers, dismissals, and resignations to the regional board;*
 - (ii) *prepare an annual budget, based on the minimum programme accepted by the regional board, and submit it to the regional board for approval and financing;*
 - (iii) *prepare, and submit to the regional board for financing in such a way as to achieve a common tax rate based on an equalized assessment for all public school supporters of its public school area, a supplementary budget to provide for expenditures in excess of the minimum programme approved by the regional board on behalf of items such as*
 - (1) *salaries in excess of those stipulated in the regional basic salary schedule;*
 - (2) *more teachers than the number of pupils in average daily attendance would warrant under the teacher-pupil ratio approved by the regional board;*
 - (3) *additional teachers of special subjects;*
 - (4) *additional equipment;*
 - (5) *nursery schools and kindergartens not provided for in the regional minimum programme; and*
 - (6) *transportation for public elementary school pupils in addition to that provided under the regional minimum programme;*
 - (iv) *determine the boundaries of attendance areas within the public school area, for public elementary school purposes, and alter them from time to time as conditions demand;*
 - (v) *where deemed advisable, make arrangements for pupils to attend schools in neighbouring public school areas;*
 - (vi) *locate, finance (subject to the approval of the local government authorities² concerned), construct, and close schools, or establish central schools and other buildings for school purposes;*
 - (vii) *adapt, as recommended by the regional director and subject to the approval of the Minister, the provincial curriculum and courses of study to meet special needs of the area;*

¹See Chapter XII.

²See subsequent paragraphs of this chapter.

- (viii) *hold title to public elementary school property, and maintain such property directly or, by agreement, have it maintained by the maintenance staff of the regional board;*
- (ix) *appoint, transfer, and dismiss or accept the resignation of a secretary-treasurer, clerical staff, and other personnel;*
- (x) *perform such other duties and enjoy such other powers of public school boards as are not specifically assigned to the jurisdiction of the regional board.*

MAINTAINING LOCAL INTEREST IN EDUCATION

14. We have accepted as a basic principle that the control of education must not be removed too far from the local community. Basic units for both post-elementary and public elementary education must be considerably larger than the attendance area of one school in order to satisfy certain other criteria, but the maintenance of local interest is so vital that it must not be sacrificed. In order that members of the board may be informed of specific local needs and desires, some type of committee for each school or group of schools, exercising at least advisory powers, would serve a useful purpose. Such committees would tend to keep alive local interest in education and to organize and promote local support for all activities of the school.

15. We recommend

- (a) *that for each secondary school or group of schools the regional board be permitted to appoint a "secondary school committee" to act in an advisory capacity and to exercise such powers and duties as may, at the board's discretion, be delegated to it;*
- (b) *that for each public elementary school or group of schools the public elementary school authority be permitted to appoint a public elementary school committee to act in an advisory capacity and to exercise such powers and duties as may, at the board's discretion, be delegated to it.*

16. The school principal should be a member of the school committee for all purposes except matters relating to his own salary and tenure; and a member of the appointing board should be an *ex-officio* member of the committee for that part of the region in which he resides. Municipal councils in the attendance area concerned should be permitted to nominate a limited number of members for appointment by the board to school committees.

NUMBER OF MEMBERS, AND METHOD AND TIME OF ELECTION OF LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES

17. The number of members of a local education authority and the method and time of their election are interrelated matters which must be viewed as a whole.

Optimum Number of Members of a Local Education Authority

18. No Canadian study has been made to determine the optimum number of members of a local education authority. The general practice has been to have a 3-man board administer education for the small school "section" or "district". For the most part, city and town boards have had 7 or fewer members, although in a few cities the number of members has been as high as 23. High school and collegiate institute boards in Ontario vary in size from 3 to 11 or 12 members, but the median number of members is less than 9. Plenderleith¹ advocated a 7-man board for New Brunswick county units, as did a Commission on Education,² and this recommendation has been adopted for each of the 15 county boards. In Nova Scotia, municipal units are also administered by 7-man boards. In forming larger units the four western provinces of Canada have made provision for boards of 5 or 6 members. The American Association of School Administrators³ favoured boards of from 5 to 9 members for rural-school community districts. The Tennessee Survey Commission⁴ recommended a county board of education of 7 members. Meece⁵ preferred a board of from 5 to 7 members.

19. Where the unit of administration is large in area, to have a post-elementary school board with a large membership necessarily entails travel by a large number of people to a central point at least once a month at considerable cost either to themselves or to the ratepayers. Such a board tends to function through standing committees—a practice which may, contrary to the principle that the chief function of a board is legislative, lead to an over-emphasis on administrative details. In our opinion, the board should delegate its executive functions to salaried employees.

20. We believe that a board should not have less than 5 or more than 9 members, except perhaps in the case of a large city where the board has had a larger membership for many years. In such a case we feel the number of members to be elected should be a matter for local decision by the ratepayers, though we suggest the desirability of limiting the number, if possible, to not more than 9.

Method of Election

21. Since we recommended earlier that all members of local education

¹William A. Plenderleith *et al.*, *The Plenderleith Report on King's County Educational Survey*, New Brunswick Department of Education, Fredericton, 1938.

²*Report of the Commission on Education for the Province of New Brunswick*, Fredericton, 1932, p. 39.

³The American Association of School Administrators, *School Boards in Action*, 24th Year Book, Washington, D.C., 1946, p. 413.

⁴Burgin E. Dossett, *Public Education in Tennessee* (summary), Nashville: Tennessee Department of Education, 1946.

⁵Leonard E. Meece, *A Manual for School Board Members*, bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington, March, 1941, p. 22.

authorities be elected, we need consider here only whether the members should be elected at large or by wards. The opinion of most experts is that boards which administer education in relatively small areas should be elected at large. There is not the same agreement, however, about the method of electing county and larger-unit boards. Cameron¹ favoured the use of wards in units containing parts of more than one municipality. The Manitoba Select Committee² advocated selection of the larger unit board by wards, as did authorities in Alberta and Saskatchewan. Plenderleith³ recommended that the elective members of New Brunswick county boards be elected by wards. The members in about one-third of the county boards in the United States are elected by wards. Those who support this method of election advance the following arguments:

- (1) Election by wards ensures a proper balance of representation as between the rural and urban parts of the unit.
- (2) Such units are often so great in area that, where elections are at large, a majority of the candidates may be unknown to most of the voters.
- (3) Election by wards is more likely to give representation to religious, economic, and other minority groups.

22. It is our opinion that in Ontario no one method should be made mandatory for the election of all school boards. Where the number of members is small, boards for both post-elementary and public elementary education in cities and towns should be elected at large. In other parts of the province, however, this method is not necessarily the better one. If it were adopted, a post-elementary school authority might conceivably be representative of either only the urban or only the rural voters of the region, depending upon which type of community had the greater population. In regions large in area the argument that voters would not know the candidates if elections were at large has considerable weight. As far as public school boards are concerned, experience with the present township school area boards has shown that the method of election at large is satisfactory.

Time of Election

23. Educators in the United States prefer that school board members be elected on a day other than that set for regular municipal or other governmental elections. We have found no evidence in Canada to support this preference. The argument that more people would vote at a special election has been disproved by experience. As far as we can determine, the practice of electing school trustees at the same time as municipal councils has proved satisfactory in Ontario.

¹Maxwell A. Cameron, *Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Educational Finance*, Victoria: King's Printer, Province of British Columbia, 1945.

²*Report of the Special Select Committee of the Manitoba Legislative Assembly on Education*, Winnipeg: King's Printer, 1945.

³William A. Plenderleith, *op. cit.*

Conclusions

24. With reference to number of members and method and time of election of local education authorities, we recommend

- (a) *that members of public school boards be elected by qualified supporters of public elementary schools by secret ballot at the time of the municipal elections;*
- (b) *that members of boards administering post-elementary education (regional post-elementary school boards and regional boards of education) be elected by qualified ratepayers (whether supporters of public elementary or separate elementary schools) by secret ballot at the time of the municipal elections;*
- (c)
 - (i) *that the members of a public school board be elected at large;*
 - (ii) *that, where the boundaries of a public school area coincide with those of an urban municipality, the number of members on the board be not less than 5 nor more than 7;*
 - (iii) *that, in other public school areas, the number of members on the board be 5, and that not more than 3 members be residents of urban municipalities;*
- (d)
 - (i) *that the members of regional post-elementary school boards and regional boards of education be elected either at large or by wards at the option of the ratepayers, the method selected being subject to change by plebiscite but not more frequently than once every five years;*
 - (ii) *that, where election by wards is adopted in regions whose boundaries coincide with those of a city, the wards used for municipal elections be used in electing the members of the regional board;*
 - (iii) *that regions other than those whose boundaries coincide with those of a city be divided, on the recommendation of regional consultative committees,*
 - (1) *in the case of that part of Ontario divided into counties, by by-laws of the county council and, if any, separated town council or councils concerned,*
 - (2) *in that part of the province not divided into counties, by the Minister,**into not more than 9 wards, not necessarily on the basis of population but in such a manner as to ensure adequate representation of both urban and rural areas;*
- (e)
 - (i) *that, in regions whose boundaries coincide with those of a city, regional boards of education and regional post-elementary school boards consist of not less than 5 members nor more than the greatest of: (1) 9 members, or (2) one member per ward, or (3) the number of members elected to the board of edu-*

cation or public school board of the city immediately prior to the date of formation of the region;

- (ii) *that, in all other regions, regional boards of education and regional post-elementary school boards consist of not less than 5 nor more than 9 members;*
- (iii) *that, where elections are by wards, either one or 2 members be elected by the qualified voters of each ward;*
- (iv) *that, where elections are at large, the number of elected members on the regional board be not greater than 9.*

TERM OF OFFICE AND METHOD OF RETIREMENT OF SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS

25. It is generally agreed that school board members should serve at least two years, and that terms of office should overlap in order to assure reasonable continuity of policy. A study of the practice in Canada seems to indicate that a three-year term is most suitable; as far as we can determine, no school trustees in Canada are elected or appointed for longer terms. In order to make certain that the policies of local education authorities are subject at all times to the will of the electorate and to permit continuity of policy, we recommend

- (a) (i) *that, where elections are at large, board members serve for three-year terms;*
- (ii) *that, where elections are by wards, members serve for three-year terms except that where there are 2 members representing a ward the term of office of each be two years;*
- (b) *that terms of office of members of local education authorities be so arranged that they overlap.*

REMUNERATION OF MEMBERS OF SCHOOL BOARDS

26. What is considered the best practice with regard to remuneration of members of school boards varies with the type of school unit concerned. In city and town units and in others of comparable or smaller area, the common practice is for members to serve without remuneration. This is true, except for isolated cases, in Canada, the United States, and Great Britain. In county or other larger-unit boards of education, however, the situation is different. Here, in order to attend board meetings, it is frequently necessary for members to spend one day or more away from their ordinary places of residence. This entails two types of financial loss: actual out-of-pocket expenses for transportation, meals, and hotel accommodation; and loss of time and earnings. It has been the practice in most states and provinces where such larger units have been formed for remuneration to be paid to board members to cover one or both of these items. In Ontario, payment of limited transportation expenses and per diem allowances is authorized by statute for members of certain types of boards. Table 1 shows the

remuneration granted to board members of larger units in certain states and provinces investigated by us. It is to be noted that in all cases the actual amounts in the second category are nominal.

27. The area of most of the regions under our proposed reorganization will be large. Nevertheless, it is desirable that board meetings be held at

TABLE 1

REMUNERATION OF MEMBERS OF SCHOOL BOARDS OF LARGER UNITS
IN CERTAIN PROVINCES AND STATES

<i>State or Province</i>	<i>Expense Account Allowed</i>	<i>Allowance in Lieu of Time Lost</i>
Alberta	Expenses not more than 10¢ per mile	\$5 per day up to \$60 per year
British Columbia	Actual travelling expenses when on duty	Nil
Manitoba	10¢ per mile once per meeting	\$4 per day to \$100 per year
New Brunswick	Actual expenditures made in attending meetings	Nil
Nova Scotia	Actual expenses incurred	Up to \$10 per meeting-day
Saskatchewan	10¢ per mile for 15 meetings plus 10¢ per mile for travelling on board business for number of days not exceeding number of school districts in school unit ^a	\$6 per meeting-day for not more than 15 days plus \$6 per day for board business up to number of days equal to number of districts in school unit ^a
Kentucky	\$100 per year	\$5 per meeting-day
Maryland	\$100 per year	Nil
North Carolina	5¢ per mile	\$5 per meeting-day
Ohio	10¢ per mile one way	\$2 or \$3 per meeting
Tennessee	Nil	\$4 per meeting-day
Virginia	5¢ per mile	\$180 per year
West Virginia	Actual expenses up to \$200 per year	\$60 per year

^aChairman is allowed mileage and per diem allowances up to a maximum of 12 additional days.

least once a month; and for many members this will entail loss of earnings and travel over long distances, with considerable expense for transportation, meals, and lodging. We feel that the expenses of board members should be a charge on the ratepayers of the region or public school area concerned, and that a reasonable per diem allowance should be paid to members to ensure that no qualified person is discouraged, because of possible financial loss, from serving on the board. We therefore recommend

that local education authorities be permitted to make provision for reimbursing their members, according to a scale approved by the Minister, for out-of-pocket expenses incurred in attending meetings or when otherwise officially engaged on board business; and for the payment to members of a per diem allowance not exceeding maxima—per diem and annual total—to be determined by the Minister.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES AND MUNICIPAL COUNCILS

28. It has often been suggested that municipal councils should have more control over the budgets of local education authorities. Where local education authorities are appointed bodies, there may be some justification for this suggestion, since it may be claimed that tax rates should be set by bodies directly responsible to the ratepayers. However, it is the general view in Canada and the United States that, where both municipal councils and school boards are elected, the former should have no overriding authority to determine the amount of current expenditures for education. With this view we are in agreement. The recommendation we have made that all local education authorities be elected enables us to advise more strongly that, in so far as current expenditures are concerned, education authorities continue to be fiscally independent of municipal councils.

29. The method of financing capital expenditures in Ontario differs from that in most other provinces. Except for school authorities operating in unorganized territory, all debentures for purposes of borrowing money for capital expenditures must be issued by municipal councils.¹ Where a council refuses to pass a by-law authorizing the issuance of debentures for capital expenditures, the question may be decided by a vote of the ratepayers in the school unit concerned. In the past, most local education authorities have had jurisdiction over units lying wholly within one local municipality, and the issuance of debentures by the council on behalf of the board was a relatively simple matter. With the advent of township school areas and larger high school districts, the situation has become more complex, because local education authorities may have jurisdiction over all or parts of several local municipalities. For the larger units we have recommended, three possible methods of financing capital expenditures are as follows:

- (1) A regional board, since it will be responsible to all ratepayers of the region, might be given power to issue debentures.
- (2) A county council might be authorized to issue debentures upon the request of a regional board, but this would mean the transference of such authority from the councils of the local municipalities, which are the primary local governing bodies.

¹For the method used by separate school boards see Chapter XIX.

- (3) Debentures might continue to be issued by the municipality in which the school is to be located, subject to the consent of the other municipal councils within whose jurisdiction the education authority requesting the capital expenditure operates.

30. After considering the alternatives, we feel that, since the present system operates satisfactorily, there is no need to introduce changes. We therefore recommend

- (a) *that in determining the amount of current expenditures local education authorities continue to be independent of municipal councils, and that such councils continue to be required to levy and raise such sums as are required for current expenditures by the local education authorities;*
- (b) *that a regional board be authorized to require the council of each local municipality all or part of which lies within the region to raise by taxation the same proportion of its net post-elementary school budget as the proportion which the equalized assessment of the municipality or part thereof is of the total equalized assessment of the region;*
- (c)
 - (i) *that a regional board of education (urban type) be authorized to require the council of each local municipality all or part of which lies within the region to raise by taxation the same proportion of its net public elementary school budget¹ as the proportion which the equalized assessment of the property of public school supporters of the municipality or part thereof is of the total equalized assessment of the property of public school supporters of the region;*
 - (ii) *that a regional board of education (rural type) be authorized to require the council of each local municipality all or part of which lies within the region to raise by taxation the same proportion of the net cost of the minimum programme in the public elementary schools of the region as the proportion which the equalized assessment of the property of public school supporters of the municipality or part thereof is of the total equalized assessment of the property of all public school supporters of the region;*
 - (iii) *that a regional board of education (rural type) be authorized, on behalf of a public school board under its jurisdiction, to require each municipality or part thereof in each public school area to raise by taxation the same proportion of the supplementary public elementary school budget as the proportion which the total equalized assessment of the municipality or part thereof is of the total equalized assessment of the public school area;*

¹Including a proportion of the cost of administration and supervision of education in public elementary schools.

- (iv) *that an autonomous public school board be authorized to require the council of each local municipality all or part of which lies within the area to raise by taxation the same proportion of the net public elementary school budget as the proportion which the equalized assessment of the property of the public school supporters of the municipality or part thereof is of the equalized assessment of the property of all public school supporters in the public school area;*
- (d) *that, where a region or public school area contains unorganized townships or unsurveyed territory, the regional board or public school board, as the case may be, be authorized to levy and raise rates, as if it were a municipal council, on the equalized assessment of the property in such unorganized township or unsurveyed territory of the supporters of the schools under its jurisdiction;*
- (e) *that debentures to secure the repayment of money bound for capital expenditures¹ be issued by by-law of the municipality in which the school or improvement is to be located, subject to the agreement of the councils of a majority² of the municipalities located within the region or public school area concerned;*
- (f) *that, where such majority approval by the councils is not forthcoming, the application to borrow money for such capital expenditures shall be submitted for decision, in the case of expenditures for post-elementary schools, to the vote of all the ratepayers of the region, and, in the case of expenditures for public elementary schools, to the vote of all supporters of the public schools of the public school area; and that the municipal council concerned be required to implement the wishes of the ratepayers as expressed by such vote;*
- (g) *that, where the school or improvement for which capital expenditures³ are to be made is to be located in an unorganized township or in unsurveyed territory, the regional board or public school board, as the case may be, be authorized to issue the debentures, subject to the approval of the councils of a majority of the municipalities (including improvement districts) located in whole or in part within the region or public school area.*

QUALIFICATION AND DISQUALIFICATION OF SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS

31. There are several anomalies in the various Acts dealing with the qualifications of school trustees. The provisions were originally laid down at a time when the 3-member rural school board and the 6-member urban school board constituted practically the only types of local education authorities. As new types of boards evolved to administer new kinds of units,

¹With the exception of those for separate schools.

²A majority of the municipalities is to be interpreted as meaning those liable for more than 50 per cent of the debt.

³With the exception of those for separate schools.

corresponding amendments were made in the Acts. Since we are recommending new types of local education authorities, it does not seem necessary to go into the details of the present statutes relating to qualifications. It is obvious that qualifications and disqualifying factors must apply uniformly to members of all local education authorities for post-elementary and public elementary education.

32. We therefore recommend

- (a) *that in order to be eligible for election to a regional post-elementary school board, a regional board of education, or a public school board, a candidate*
 - (i) *be a Canadian citizen or a British subject;*
 - (ii) *be at least 21 years of age;*
 - (iii) *reside within the region or public school area in which he is seeking election, or within 5 miles of the boundary thereof;*
 - (iv) *be a ratepayer,¹ the husband or wife of a ratepayer or, in the case of a unit which contains rural territory, a son or daughter if resident on the farm with the assessed owner or tenant of a farm consisting of not less than 20 acres;*
 - (v) *be not otherwise disqualified;*
- (b) *that the following be disqualifying factors for election to a regional board of education, a regional post-elementary school board, or a public school board:*
 - (i) *having overdue or unpaid school taxes at the time of nomination;²*
 - (ii) *being a teacher or supervisory official employed by a local education authority;*
 - (iii) *being a member of a municipal council, of the Provincial or Dominion Legislature, or of another local education authority;*
 - (iv) *in the case of election to a public school board, being a separate school supporter;*
 - (v) *mental illness;*
- (c) *that in each of the following occurrences or situations a member of a regional board of education, a regional post-elementary school board, or a public school board shall ipso facto vacate his seat, and the remaining members shall declare his seat vacant:*
 - (i) *three months' absence from board meetings without authorization by resolution entered in the minutes;*
 - (ii) *sustained conviction on an indictable offence;*
 - (iii) *mental illness;*
 - (iv) *cessation of conformity with the residence qualification;*

¹"Ratepayer" defined as in the present *Public Schools Act* for purposes of electing public school boards and including separate school supporters for the purpose of electing regional boards.

²Any candidate who qualifies for election by being the husband, wife, son, or daughter of a ratepayer would be disqualified under this provision if the person on whom qualification is based had unpaid or overdue taxes.

- (v) *having a pecuniary interest in a contract with the board of which he is a member;*¹
- (vi) *acceptance of office as a member of a municipal council, of the Provincial or Dominion Legislature, or of another local education authority;*
- (vii) *employment as a teacher or supervisory official by a local education authority;*
- (viii) *having any part of his school taxes for the preceding year or years overdue or unpaid at the date set for nomination of new members of the board;*
- (ix) *in the case of members of a public school board, becoming a separate school supporter.*

ADVISORY VOCATIONAL COMMITTEES

33. Early in the history of education in Upper Canada, subjects such as agriculture, manual training, and household science found a place in the schools of the province, but no special arrangement was made with regard to the administration of such courses. With the growth of interest in industrial and technical education, a special system of administration developed. *The Industrial Education Act* of 1911, based on a report of Dr. John Seath, provided for the establishment of advisory vocational committees. Dr. Seath recommended as follows:

The appointment of Advisory Committees for the management of duly established Industrial and Technical Schools; such Committees to consist of members of the School Boards and an equal number of other citizens, representing the employers and the employees, who are qualified voters and who are specially competent to advise and assist, and the proposals of such Committees to be subject to the approval of the Boards with which they are connected.²

He had found that such committees were operating in England, Scotland, and the United States, and he reported that the result of a special inquiry into their value was conclusively in their favour. They secured the sympathy and co-operation of the local industries, brought the schools into close touch with the conditions of the trades, and kept the equipment and courses of study abreast of the times.

34. In Ontario at the present time, a local education authority with jurisdiction over secondary education may, subject to the approval of the Minister, establish and maintain a vocational school. Where, in accordance with these regulations, this is done, "the said schools or departments shall be under the management and control of an advisory vocational committee appointed by this Board."³ Subject to the approval of the Minister and the board, the advisory committee has authority to provide a site, building, and

¹Subject to the exceptions of Section 140 of *The Public Schools Act*, R.S.O., 1937.

²John Seath, *Education for Industrial Purposes*, Toronto: King's Printer, 1911, p. 347. Dr. Seath had been commissioned by the government in 1909 to report upon a desirable and practicable system of technical education for Ontario.

³*The Vocational Education Act*, R.S.O., 1937, Ch. 369, as amended to 1950, Sec. 6.

equipment or to arrange for conducting the school or department in an existing school or other building, and to prescribe courses of study and provide for examinations and diplomas. An advisory vocational committee has 8 or 12 members: one half derived from the appointing body, the other half composed of representatives, in equal numbers, of certain employer and employee groups. Where the membership of a secondary school board includes an appointee of a public school board, separate school board, or county council, he must be among those appointed to the advisory committee.

35. The advisory vocational committee has the power to co-opt additional members from the board and from the employer and employee groups, provided that the number co-opted from the employee group is the same as the number co-opted from the employer group.

36. The advisory vocational committee is not a local education authority. Yet it is more than a special committee of the board with power to add to its membership. It has statutory powers and duties of its own as laid down in *The Vocational Education Act*, and may therefore be classed as a sub-authority.

37. We recognize the great service rendered by advisory vocational committees in establishing vocational education as an important part of the general educational system. We believe, however, that under our proposed reorganization such committees will no longer be necessary.

38. Accordingly we recommend

that statutory provision for the appointment of advisory vocational committees be repealed, and that existing committees of this type be dissolved.

39. Regional post-elementary school boards and regional boards of education, however, will wish to have the benefit of advice and assistance of persons with specialized knowledge. We therefore recommend

that regional post-elementary school boards and regional boards of education be empowered to co-opt persons with special qualifications to act as advisers to the board.

CHAPTER XII

OTHER ASPECTS OF THE LOCAL ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION

TRANSPORTATION OF PUPILS

1. The transportation of pupils to and from school became recognized as a responsibility of local education authorities in this country as a result of the consolidated-school movement during and immediately following the First World War. The reasons for transporting pupils were: to effect economies by increasing the number of pupils per teacher and thus reducing the number of teachers and classrooms; to bring together sufficient pupils to make possible the teaching in senior grades in elementary schools of specialized courses such as elementary agriculture, manual training, and domestic science; and to secure sufficient pupils to warrant the operation of at least one secondary school classroom. Comparatively poor road conditions and reliance on horse-drawn vehicles circumscribed the area which could be consolidated. With the advent of paved highways and automobiles, however, there was a rapid increase in the use of transportation to bring children living in sparsely settled districts to a school with adequate educational facilities.

2. The main feature of the consolidated-school movement was a central school in a rural municipality or school area, to which there was carefully planned transportation. It was claimed that such a system not only resulted in improved educational facilities but also afforded pupils an opportunity of continuing their education while living at home. As early as 1908, for example, Hudson Township in Northern Ontario preferred to establish a central school and provide transportation rather than to operate a large number of small schools. *The Consolidated Schools Act* was passed in 1919, but it resulted in the establishment of only a limited number of consolidated schools. The majority of these were in the territorial districts; all provided transportation for pupils; and nearly all offered secondary school courses.

3. Following the introduction in 1936 of a new programme of studies in elementary schools, the Department of Education ceased to encourage the organization of fifth classes in ungraded rural schools and encouraged the transportation of rural pupils to secondary schools under an arrangement by two or more elementary school boards. This was promoted by the

Department in order to afford rural pupils a choice of academic, commercial, or technical education. The Department originally paid 60 per cent of the net cost of transportation but reduced this to 50 per cent in 1941-42. Since 1945, transportation costs have been included as approved cost for legislative grant purposes, and in some cases up to 90 per cent of the net cost has been paid by the Department of Education. With the growth of larger units of administration for secondary schools, secondary school boards have assumed the major responsibility for the transportation of secondary school pupils.

4. The number of pupils transported has increased rapidly, particularly within the last five years, owing to the development of township school areas and larger high school districts. For example, the number of pupils transported to secondary schools during the school year 1943-44 was 1,643;¹ during the school year 1948-49 the number was approximately 17,000.² In addition, approximately 8,000 pupils were transported during the latter year to elementary schools.² Some secondary schools today transport more than 90 per cent of their students.

5. There is provision in the present statutes for the transportation of pupils by train, horse-drawn vehicle, or motor vehicle (including motor boat). Where transportation is by horse-drawn or motor vehicle, an agreement must be executed by the school board and the operator. This must include a description of each route, the length of each route in miles, the number of pupils to be transported, the period to be covered by the contract, and the amount to be paid by the board for the service. Contracts are subject, for legislative grant purposes, to approval by the Minister of Education. Where transportation is by motor vehicle (other than motor boat), the vehicle must be licensed under *The Public Vehicles Act*, and must be insured and operated as that Act and regulations made under it provide. Where transportation is by motor boat, the requirements of the Dominion Department of Transport must be met.

6. Where transportation is provided by a board of trustees of a public or separate school, the approved cost of transportation may be included as a cost of operation for legislative grant purposes. Where transportation is provided by a secondary school board, the approved cost is, for legislative grant purposes, included under maintenance. During the calendar year 1948, school boards spent a total of \$2,385,446 on transportation of pupils. Of this sum, elementary school boards spent \$824,497 for the transportation of pupils to other elementary schools and \$544,314 for transportation to secondary schools. Secondary school boards paid \$1,016,635 for the transportation of their own pupils. The length of the average route to a secondary school is 23 miles, and the average time spent in travelling this distance is 63 minutes. Approximately 85 per cent of the pupils transported to secondary schools leave home after 7.30 a.m., walk not more than half a

¹*Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1944, p. 188.*

²*Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1948, p. 186.*

mile to meet the bus, travel less than 20 miles to school, and are home again by 5.00 p.m.

7. The cost of transporting pupils to secondary schools in 1948-49 was approximately one cent per pupil-mile. The Department of Education has, for legislative grant purposes, established maximum rates according to passenger load and distance.¹ The low per-pupil transportation cost has been attributed to the growth of larger high school districts and the consequent transportation of large numbers of pupils per route. Experience in some states of the United States indicates that transportation of pupils in school buses which are owned and operated by a local education authority may be more economical than transportation in vehicles operated under contract.

8. With the growth of larger post-elementary schools, centrally located, transportation of pupils will become increasingly necessary. We therefore recommend

- (a) *that a regional board be empowered to include for legislative grant purposes the approved operating cost of transporting pupils to and from publicly supported post-elementary schools;*
- (b) *that regional boards be encouraged to purchase and operate vehicles for the transportation of pupils; that legislative grants be paid on the capital cost of the vehicles so purchased; and that, for legislative grant purposes, maxima for capital and operating costs of transportation be determined by the Minister of Education.*

9. Although we do not foresee a general need for the transportation of large numbers of pupils to elementary schools, there may be a limited need in some regions. In order to avoid duplication of transportation facilities and to reduce costs, it will be advisable to co-ordinate all transportation of pupils within a region. Where the regional board of education type of administration has been adopted, the cost of transporting pupils to public elementary schools should be distributed as equitably as possible among all public school supporters of the region. We recommend

- (a) *that local education authorities² be authorized to enter into agreements with other local education authorities² to share on a pro rata basis the cost of transporting pupils to publicly supported schools; and that the approved cost thereof be eligible for general legislative grants;*
- (b) *that in regions under the jurisdiction of regional boards of education transportation of pupils to public elementary schools within the region be co-ordinated with that of pupils to post-elementary schools;*
- (c) *that a regional board of education, in determining its minimum programme for the public elementary schools of the region, be*

¹Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1948, p. 189.

²Including separate school boards.

empowered, subject to the approval of the Minister for legislative grant purposes, to fix minimum and maximum distances for the transportation of pupils to public elementary schools, and to include the cost of transportation within these limits in the regional minimum programme to be financed by a common rate on all public school supporters of the region.

10. The maximum and minimum distances set by regional boards of education for the transportation of pupils to public elementary schools will vary from region to region, depending upon the nature of the terrain and the distribution and density of the population. Public school boards desiring to transport pupils who live nearer to the school than the minimum distance established by the regional board (or farther than the maximum distance) would budget this expense as a part of their supplementary budget, subject to the approval of the Minister for legislative grant purposes.

SERVICES IN LIEU OF TRANSPORTATION

11. In many regions, particularly in Northern Ontario, it may not be feasible, although a need exists, to transport pupils to secondary schools and junior colleges. Where this situation is encountered in other provinces, certain services are provided in lieu of transportation. Nova Scotia has made provision for the central authority to pay 75 per cent of the "net cost"¹ of the board and lodging of pupils who cannot be transported, or of the maintenance of hostels, which are erected and paid for by the provincial government. The Manitoba Department of Education has recently approved the construction of a hostel in the northern part of the province. In 1946, 22 of the 52 school divisions in Alberta operated one or more dormitories. Capital outlay for building and equipment is a charge against the divisional board, but the cost of operation and maintenance is met as far as possible through the payment of fees by parents. In localities where there is not a sufficient number of pupils to warrant the establishment of a hostel or dormitory, it is common practice for a local education authority to pay part of the cost of the board and lodging of pupils.

12. We recommend

- (a) *that, where transportation of pupils to publicly supported post-elementary schools is not feasible for the whole or part of a year, or where the cost would be prohibitive, regional boards be authorized to provide residential facilities for pupils, to pay allowances for board and lodging of pupils, or, in exceptional cases and subject to the approval of the Minister, to utilize correspondence courses provided by the Department of Education;*
- (b) *that the cost of providing and operating residential facilities and the cost of allowances for board and lodging for post-elementary school pupils be eligible, subject to the approval of the Minister, for general legislative grants.*

¹Regulation No. 44 (III) (2) under the Nova Scotia Education Act.

RESIDENCES FOR TEACHERS

13. It is a common practice in the Prairie Provinces and in Nova Scotia for local education authorities to provide residences for teachers in rural areas; and provision for such has been made in Ontario in statutes dating back to the Act of 1846. We recommend

- (a) *that, subject to the approval of the Minister for legislative grant purposes, local education authorities be empowered to construct or acquire residences for teachers;*
- (b) *that a teacher be charged a reasonable rental for such accommodation.*

NON-RESIDENT PUPILS

Post-Elementary Schools

14. Under the proposed regional organization for post-elementary school purposes every child normally domiciled in Ontario will qualify as a resident of at least one of the regions, and, accordingly, there will be no non-resident post-elementary school pupils. The term "county pupil", as at present used, will no longer be applicable. The terms "resident pupil" and "non-resident pupil", as defined in the present statutes, are confusing: a resident of an administrative unit may be a "non-resident pupil" of that unit, and a non-resident may be a "resident pupil". The use of these terms should be discontinued.

15. We recommend

- (a) *that a pupil attending a post-elementary school in a region be designated a "regional pupil" if his normal domicile is within the boundaries of the region;*
- (b) *that a pupil attending a post-elementary school in a region be designated a "non-regional pupil" if his normal domicile is not within the boundaries of the region.*

16. All regional pupils, whether or not they reside on land on which taxes are paid to a municipality within the region, should be entitled to attend a post-elementary school without payment of tuition fees.¹ We recommend

- (a) *that a regional pupil be entitled to attend a post-elementary school in the region without payment of tuition fees;¹*
- (b) *that, where a regional pupil is normally domiciled on land held by the Crown in right of Canada or Ontario and where his parent or guardian is not liable for, and does not pay, taxes for school purposes within the region, the cost of his post-elementary education² be borne by the province.*

17. Non-regional pupils may be classified as follows:

- (1) Those who attend a post-elementary school in a region in which they are not normally domiciled because they are nearer by publicly travel-

¹With the possible exception of the third year of junior college. See Chapter XI.

²Tuition fees, and cost of transportation or services in lieu thereof.

led roads to it, or to a transportation route leading to it, than they are to a post-elementary school or transportation route leading to it in the region in which they reside.

- (2) Those who attend a post-elementary school in a region in which they are not normally domiciled because they cannot obtain the course or courses they desire in a post-elementary school in the region in which they are normally domiciled.
- (3) Those who, although a post-elementary school in the region in which they are normally domiciled offers a suitable course or courses and is nearer to their place of residence by road or transportation route, attend by preference a post-elementary school in another region.

18. No student should be prevented from attending the nearest secondary school or junior college offering the type of course he desires, whether or not it is located in his own region. On the other hand, parents or guardians should not have the right, without payment of fees, to send a child to a post-elementary school in another region if there is a post-elementary school offering the course or courses he desires readily accessible in the region in which he is normally domiciled, unless they are assessed in that region for an amount at least equal to the average assessment for post-elementary school purposes of the residents of the region. We recommend

- (a) *that the tuition fees of a non-regional pupil in categories (1) and (2), above, be paid by the regional board of the region in which the pupil is normally domiciled and be based on the net cost¹ to the board of the region in which he attends school;*
- (b) *that a non-regional pupil in category (3), above, unless the parent or guardian is assessed in the region in which he does not reside for an amount at least equal to the average assessment for post-elementary school purposes of the residents of the region, be admitted to a post-elementary school only on condition that a tuition fee based on the net cost¹ of post-elementary education in the region be paid by his parent or guardian.*

Elementary Schools

19. Notwithstanding the comprehensive provisions of the administrative organization we have proposed, there may be children, particularly in territorial districts, whose parents cannot become supporters of either a public or a separate school owing to the fact that they are normally domiciled in an area not included in a public school area. Responsibility for the elementary school education of such children should be vested in the Minister of Education. We recommend

that the Minister of Education provide for the elementary school education of children for whose education no public school board or separate school board can be held responsible, through services such as correspondence courses and school cars or through such means as the

¹Gross cost of education less legislative grants, on a per-pupil basis.

payment of tuition fees and transportation costs or allowances for board and lodging while they are attending a public school.

20. Provision for the elementary school education of all children resident in a public school area whose parents are not separate school supporters¹ should be a responsibility of the public school board of the area. We recommend

- (a) *that public school pupils be classified as resident pupils, non-resident pupils, or Crown Land public school pupils;*
- (b) *that a public school pupil who resides within a public school area on land held by the Crown in right of Canada or Ontario and whose parent or guardian is not liable for, and does not pay, taxes for the support of public schools within the public school area be designated a "Crown Land public school pupil";*
- (c) *that a public school pupil (other than a Crown Land public school pupil) whose normal domicile is within the public school area in which he attends school be designated a "resident pupil";*²
- (d) *that a public school pupil (other than a Crown Land public school pupil) whose normal domicile is in a public school area other than the one in which he attends school be designated a "non-resident pupil".*

21. With reference to the payment of tuition fees, we recommend

- (a) *that a resident public school pupil be admitted to a public elementary school without payment of tuition fees;*³
- (b) *that a non-resident school pupil whose parent or guardian is assessed for school purposes in the public school area in which the pupil attends school for an amount at least equal to the average assessment of residents of the area be admitted to a public school therein without payment of tuition fees;*
- (c) *that the board of the public school area in which a non-resident pupil, other than one such as is specified in (b) above, is normally domiciled be required to pay the tuition fees, based on the net cost of education to the board of the school attended, of such a pupil after the regional director or regional superintendent has certified in writing that a public school in a neighbouring public school area is more accessible;*
- (d) *that the parent or guardian of a non-resident pupil, other than one such as specified in (b) and (c) above, be required to pay fees in such amount as may be prescribed by the board; but that such fees should not exceed the average net cost per pupil of operating the school;*

¹For a discussion of non-resident separate school pupils see Chapter XIX.

²Including a child maintained in a county house of refuge or a children's shelter.

³In the case of a public school pupil maintained in a county house of refuge or children's shelter, the tuition fees should be paid by the county council to the board of the school attended and be based upon the net cost of education to the public school board.

- (e) *that the payment of the tuition fees of a Crown Land public school pupil who attends a public school in the public school area in which he resides be a responsibility of the Minister of Education.*

ENFORCEMENT OF COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE

22. Enforcement of the statutory provisions relating to compulsory attendance should be a responsibility of local education authorities, subject to the Acts and regulations. In the past it has frequently not been feasible for a board, owing to the relatively small number of pupils under its jurisdiction, to employ attendance officers on a full-time basis. We have been advised that, as a solution to this problem, the appointment of county attendance officers and staffs has been under consideration.

23. Since we have recommended regions which in some cases will be larger than counties as the basic units of administration for post-elementary education, it seems logical that each region should serve as an administrative unit for the enforcement of compulsory attendance. Since regional boards will be elected by qualified ratepayers, including supporters of both public and separate elementary schools, one attendance officer and staff, financed through the regional board budget, might well serve the entire unit.

24. We recommend

- (a) *that enforcement of the provisions for compulsory school attendance in publicly supported schools be a responsibility of a regional board of education or of a regional post-elementary school board;*
- (b) *that a regional board of education be empowered to appoint a regional school attendance officer to the staff of the regional director of education;¹*
- (c) *that regional boards of education which do not appoint supervisory officials and regional post-elementary school boards be empowered to appoint regional school attendance officers to work under the direction of the board and in co-operation with the regional superintendent of education.¹*

EMPLOYMENT OF PUPILS OF COMPULSORY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AGE

25. We have recommended² that legislation be enacted to prohibit the employment of any child who is or should be enrolled for full-time attendance in a school, except, under specified conditions, before or after school hours or when school is not in session. The enforcement of this provision should be a responsibility of regional boards of education and of regional post-elementary school boards. We recommend

that regional boards of education and regional post-elementary school boards be required and empowered to enforce the statutes relating to employment on any school day of any child who is or should be enrolled for full-time attendance in a school located in the region.

¹See Chapter XIII.

²See Chapter III.

ADMINISTRATION OF HEALTH SERVICES IN SCHOOLS

26. In 1908 the first statutory provision in Ontario for health services in schools permitted a public or separate school board to provide for the medical and dental inspection of pupils. In 1919 the Department of Education established a branch to supervise the school health programme. Summer school courses open to graduate nurses were offered, leading to the diploma "Approved School Nurse". In 1920 the University of Western Ontario instituted one-year courses in public health nursing, leading to a B.Sc. degree in public health. Departmental summer courses were discontinued in 1931 when it was found that the universities had trained a sufficient number of public health nurses to meet the existing demand.

27. In 1925 the Department of Education withdrew from the supervision of school health services, and the Department of Health assumed responsibility. Amendments to the Acts provided that any new health services that were inaugurated must be provided and paid for by municipal boards of health, and must be operated under agreements with local education authorities; but acceptable programmes of medical and dental inspection of pupils that were in operation under a public or separate school board prior to July 21, 1924, might be continued.

28. Legislation in 1940 permitted county councils to employ public health nurses for school health services at the expense of the county. Local direction for the programme was to be given by the Medical Officer of Health. In 1943 an amendment to *The Public Health Act* permitted the establishment of health units, through which all schools, both rural and urban, in an area of considerable extent might be supplied with school health services as a part of a community health programme. Data relating to existing school health services are given in Table 1.

29. These data show that approximately 59 per cent of the pupils enrolled in the elementary and secondary schools of Ontario in 1948 had school health service "of some degree". The number of personnel employed¹ indicates that, in some instances at least, the school health service is definitely limited. But an understanding of the requirements of adequate school health services is growing, and much progress has already been made toward meeting these requirements.

30. In Brief 56, submitted by the School Health Section of the Ontario Educational Association, it is stated that:

A School Health Service should be an integral part of the community Health programme, which is developed around the family as the unit for health supervision and service extending from the pre-natal period to the end of life and embracing all human and environmental factors that affect the individual and the family in their community relationships.

It is, we believe, with an appreciation of these responsibilities of public health services that larger local units of administration for health services—the public health units—are being developed.

¹*Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1948, pp. 136-141.*

TABLE 1
HEALTH SERVICES IN ONTARIO SCHOOLS, 1948^a

	<i>Number</i>	<i>School Population</i>
Health units in which school health service is under unit boards of health	24	174,307
Municipalities in which school health service is under local board of health	59	145,579
Municipalities in which school health service is under local school board	17	47,502
School health service under county council	5	25,440
School health service under collegiate board	1	5,300
School health service sponsored by school board and provided by private agencies	25	11,760
Total school population receiving school health service of some degree		409,888
Enrolment in elementary and secondary schools, Ontario, 1947-48		691,816
Percentage of school population receiving some form of school health service		59.2

^aAdapted from the *Report of the Minister of Education*, Ontario, 1948, pp. 136-141.

31. To be effective, school health services should form an integral part of a comprehensive programme of general community health services. This requires that school health services be administered by local health authorities in co-operation with local education authorities. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that the provision, financing, and administration of health services in all publicly supported schools continue to be the responsibility of local boards of health, as at present set forth in Sections 91 and 91(a) of The Public Health Act;*
- (b) *that the regulation, inspection, and supervision of school health services continue to be a responsibility of the Minister of Health, as at present set forth in Sections 5(v) and 12 of The Public Health Act;*
- (c) *that local education authorities and school staffs be encouraged to co-operate with local health authorities in the provision of adequate school health services.*

32. Some of the local education authorities which instituted school health services of their own before July 21, 1924, have found this form of

administration satisfactory and may wish to continue it. There is no reason why this should not be permitted, subject to the condition that expenditures so incurred be not eligible for legislative grants for educational purposes. An arrangement might be made whereby local education authorities providing school health services could receive grants on their expenditures from the Department of Health. We recommend

that expenditures for health services incurred by local education authorities which now provide health services under the provisions of Section 80(j) of The Public Schools Act, or Section 45(m) of The Separate Schools Act, or Section 25 (1) (c) of The High Schools Act be not eligible for general legislative grants from the Department of Education.

33. In order to further the co-operation between local education authorities and local boards of health and to assist in the co-ordination of their efforts, we recommend

that provision be made in The Public Health Act for the appointment by a local education authority of an official representative as a member of the local board of health or unit board of health.

34. The trend toward the formation of health units by the Department of Health seems to be sound. An expansion of this type of organization will, it is to be hoped, result in the near future in the provision of adequate school health services for all pupils in publicly supported schools. We recommend

that the formation of health units by the Department of Health be encouraged.

35. We believe that all employees of local education authorities should receive medical examinations periodically. Accordingly we recommend

(a) *that an individual appointed to teach on a Letter of Permission in any publicly supported school be required to undergo an examination by a qualified medical practitioner appointed and paid by the employing local education authority, and that the results thereof be reported to the Minister of Education;*

(b) *that periodic X-ray examinations of the chest be made compulsory for all employees of local education authorities; and that the cost of such examinations be borne by the employing authority and be included as part of approved cost of operating for legislative grant purposes;*

(c) (i) *that the Minister of Education be authorized to require, upon the written request of a school board, an employee of a local education authority to undergo an examination by a physician or psychiatrist selected by the Minister;*

(ii) *that the physician or psychiatrist make a confidential written report of such examination to the Minister only;*

- (iii) *that the cost of such examination, inclusive of any necessary travelling costs but exclusive of required treatment, be borne by the employing education authority and be included as part of approved cost of operating for legislative grant purposes;*
- (d) *that where, following an examination, the medical report discloses conditions which, in the opinion of the Minister, warrant such action, and after due notification has been given to the local education authority and to the employee, the Minister suspend or cancel the certificate of the teacher, or, in the case of a non-teaching employee, require his suspension or dismissal.*

CHAPTER XIII

THE SUPERVISION OF EDUCATION

CONCEPTS OF ADMINISTRATION, SUPERVISION, AND INSPECTION

1. There was no need for administrative and supervisory personnel in the schools in the earlier periods of European history, because there was no differentiation between teaching and administrative functions. Both were discharged by the teacher, who chose his own curriculum and texts, collected fees, provided school premises, and evaluated the progress of his pupils. As soon as a teacher employed other teachers, however, a primary division of labour occurred. The employing teacher became responsible for what we now call the administrative and supervisory duties; but these were slight. However, when the State and Church began to make provision for education, administrative and supervisory practices on a larger scale became necessary. It was from the system of administration and supervision developed in the German Protestant states, particularly Prussia, that the administrative traditions of Northern Europe and North America largely sprang. The Church, although its interest in education antedated that of the State, had confined its efforts chiefly to the operation of individual schools. But when Prussia originated the practice of appointing the clergy to exercise the function of supervision in the state-supported schools, Church and State became partners in controlling the administrative and supervisory aspects of education.

2. There is no clear-cut line of demarcation between administration and supervision. Both terms have been used to denote all educational activities connected with the schools, other than those which are purely instructional: not only the improvement of instruction and the professional growth of the teacher but also those functions which have as their aim the securing of public support and the material facilities necessary for effective classroom work. A narrower interpretation of both words, however, makes possible a reasonably definite distinction between the two concepts. Supervision may be taken to include the evaluation of the efficiency of the teaching and learning processes in the classroom and the means of improving the learning efficiency of pupils by helping the teacher to overcome instructional difficulties. Administration may be taken to include the arrangements made

for "bringing the right child to the right school, under the right teacher". It is concerned with such things as finance, the employment of teachers, the provision and maintenance of school buildings, supplies, the number of pupils per teacher, statistical reports, attendance, and public relations.

3. Inspection is a concept that cuts across the concepts of administration and supervision as interpreted in the narrower sense. It is essentially evaluation and hence may be regarded as synonymous with that aspect of supervision, but that aspect only. It has to do also with the evaluation of the material provision for education, such as the nature and care of buildings, equipment, and supplies. Thus it is difficult to distinguish sharply between the functions of administration, supervision, and inspection: inspection is necessary in both administration and supervision; and the administrator and the supervisor have many duties which overlap.

4. Because an attempt was being made to achieve some form of standardization in a large number of widely dispersed small schools, the first inspection systems established, such as those in the German states, were concerned with the evaluation of the administrative rather than the supervisory aspects of education. The further division of the function of inspection into administration and supervision developed because of the growth in size of individual schools and the increasing variety in types of instruction. This required that some individual should oversee the whole educational process in an entire school. The development of the process was most pronounced in the famous humanistic schools of the Jesuits, although a similar development was apparent in the Academy conducted by John Calvin in Geneva. It was in this school that the word "principal" was first used to designate the head teacher of a school.

DEVELOPMENT OF ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION OF EDUCATION IN ONTARIO

Development Prior to 1846

5. The District Schools Act of 1807,¹ the first educational legislation in what is now Ontario, was influenced by the existence in Great Britain of public schools such as Eton, Harrow, and Rugby. An attempt was made to establish a "public school" in each of the eight districts into which Upper Canada was divided. It was only natural, therefore, that administrative and supervisory practices common in England at the time should be established here. No supervision was exercised by the central authority. Each school was governed by a board of trustees appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor; and the trustees examined and appointed the teacher, who was free to develop the school in accordance with his own ideas. No annual report to the central authority was required of the trustees. The almost complete absence of control and supervision by the central authority is noteworthy,

¹47 Geo. III, Ch. 6, S.U.C.

especially since the Act of 1807, which with but minor changes remained in force for 46 years, was the foundation of our present system of secondary schools. The boards of trustees acted as administrators, and the head teacher or principal exercised those functions which would now be classified as supervision of instruction.

6. The Act of 1841¹ made an attempt to differentiate between the administration and supervision of instruction. The district council was to be responsible principally for the provision and maintenance of schools, and supervision was to be a statutory duty imposed on the boards of common school commissioners elected annually in each township. The latter were required to operate the schools of the township, to engage and dismiss teachers, and to superintend and inspect the schools. The first provision for supervision by other than members of local education authorities was made in the Act of 1843,² which authorized each district council to appoint a district superintendent. His duties were to include examination and certification of teachers and the visitation of each school at least once a year. The Act also required district councils to appoint local (city, town, and township) superintendents, whose duties in their areas duplicated in general those of the district superintendents. However, the local superintendents were required to report to the central authority, and were given many administrative duties, such as dividing their areas into local school districts, and acting as treasurers of the school fund.

7. Both British and American practices of the time are reflected in the legislation of these years. The local appointment of superintendents was a practice adopted from the United States, but the closer relationship to the central authority was influenced by the appointment of the first school inspectors by the central authority in England in 1839. There, the inspector's duty was considered to be "the collection of accurate information and to give advice and encouragement, if asked to do so . . .";³ they were "to abstain from any interference with the instruction, management or discipline of the school."⁴

8. From the earliest days provision was made for the efficient conduct of school business. The Common Schools Act of 1816⁵ made the treasurer of the district the school business official. He received the district's share of the legislative grant and paid it to the teachers of the common schools after the district board of education had apportioned it among the various schools and after the common school trustees had certified the teachers' claims. But the treasurer was a municipal official. The position of school

¹4 & 5 Vict., Ch. 18, S.P.C.

²7 Vict., Ch. 29, S.P.C.

³H. C. Barnard, *A Short History of English Education, 1760-1944*, London: University of London Press, 1947, p. 117.

⁴Frank Smith, *A History of English Elementary Education, 1760-1902*, London: University of London Press, 1931, p. 183.

⁵6 Geo. III, Ch. 36, S.U.C.

business official may be considered to have originated with the appointment, authorized in 1820, of clerks to district boards of education. By the terms of the General School Act of 1841,¹ warrants for sums of money to defray the expenses of common schools had to be signed by a majority of the township school commissioners (trustees). This placed responsibility directly on the board members. By law, town clerks were to act also as clerks to the common school commissioners. The building and repairing of school-houses and the provision of fuel and other necessary materials were placed in the hands of the commissioners, each of whom was designated as manager of a particular township school. No provision was made in the Act for appointment by the common school commissioners of either a secretary or treasurer. The Act provided, however, that the clerk of the municipality be the clerk of the local superintendent.

9. In the period before 1846, therefore, both administrative and supervisory duties were discharged by laymen. Up to this point the development had passed through two stages: in the first the work was done by elected or appointed boards of trustees or commissioners; in the second it was done by a clerk or a district superintendent appointed for the purpose.

Development Under Ryerson, 1846-1876

10. An efficient system of inspection, Ryerson wrote in his report of 1846: ". . . involves the examination and licensing of teachers,—visiting the Schools,—discovering errors, and suggesting remedies, as to the organization, classification, and methods of teaching in the Schools,—giving counsel and instruction as to their management,—carefully examining the pupils,—animating Teachers, Trustees, and parents, by conversations, addresses, etc., whenever practicable, imparting vigor, by every available means, to the whole School System."²

Ryerson realized that there was no class of officers on which so much depended for the efficient and successful operation of elementary schools as the local superintendents, and that their proper selection was a matter of the greatest importance. They should, he felt, make themselves theoretically and practically acquainted with every subject taught in the schools, with the best modes of teaching, and with school organization and management. The Act of 1846³ provided for the appointment of one district superintendent by each district council.⁴ The duties of such superintendents were: to visit all schools in their districts at least once a year and report on progress and general conditions; to advise trustees and teachers in regard to school management; to examine candidates for teachers' certificates and to grant licences; to revoke licences of unsuitable teachers; to prevent the use of unauthorized textbooks; and to make an annual report to the Chief

¹4 & 5 Vict., Ch. 18, S.P.C.

²J. G. Hodgins, *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada*, Vol. VI, 1846, Toronto: Warwick Bros. & Rutter, 1899, p. 206.

³9 Vict., Ch. 20, S.P.C.

⁴For purposes of the Act, the cities of Toronto and Kingston were classed as districts.

Superintendent. At the same time, the office of local superintendent¹ was abolished.

11. The authorization of school visitors also dates from the passing of this Act. Clergymen, municipal councillors, magistrates, and justices of the peace were given certain supervisory powers, including the right to advise teachers and trustees. Since at that time the majority of teachers were untrained, Ryerson believed that, to as great an extent as possible, the services of persons with a superior education should be secured to assist in supervision.

12. The Act of 1847,² which made cities and towns single units for the administration of common schools, provided that superintendents in such units be appointed by the board of trustees rather than by the city or district council.

13. In 1850 the right to appoint local superintendents was transferred from the district councils to the newly formed county councils. At the same time the latter were empowered to appoint either one county superintendent or a number of superintendents, each having charge of one or more townships. However, no superintendent was to have more than 100 teachers under his jurisdiction. City and town superintendents continued to be appointed by the local boards of school trustees. Ryerson appreciated the need for competent superintendents who knew enough about education to be able to give teachers real assistance; but suitably qualified persons were so few in number that for many years he did not specify any academic or professional qualifications for the office. Through circulars he did much to guide and train superintendents in their work. Although the emphasis during this period was on inspection, which included an assessment of the knowledge of pupils in each of the various branches of study, of the methods of conducting classes, and of the physical condition of the school, there was also, even at this early date, an emphasis on the superintendent's duty of assisting teachers to improve their methods.³

14. It was not until the Act of 1871,⁴ however, that a serious attempt was made to improve the status of inspection in the province. The office of local superintendent was abolished and that of county inspector was created. Inspectors were to be appointed by county councils and by the trustees of cities and towns from among those who were declared to be qualified by the Council of Public Instruction. Ryerson stated proudly that the inspectorate was open only to teachers holding the highest grade of

¹Town and township superintendents.

²10 & 11 Vict., Ch. 19, S.P.C.

³"... his visits can be made far more essentially useful than they would be were his efforts limited exclusively to the collection of such information as would enable him to furnish the desired report. He can, in many instances, aid the Teacher in supplying the defects arising from want of training." T. J. Robertson, quoted in J. G. Hodgins, *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada*, Vol. VIII, 1848-1849, Toronto: King's Printer, 1901, p. 54.

⁴34 Vict., Ch. 33, S.O.

certificate in the highest class. Examinations were set for prospective inspectors, and a list of those eligible for appointment was announced.

15. Meanwhile, secondary schools (grammar schools) had been brought under the control of the central authority. In 1855¹ the Council of Public Instruction was granted power to appoint grammar school inspectors, and the first two were appointed in that year.

16. The Act of 1871² provided for the distribution of school grants to high schools on the principle of "payment by results", a practice based on the system introduced in England in 1862. In this way the central authority formally extended its control of supervision to include examinations. Part of the legislative grant to secondary schools was to be determined by the proficiency of the pupils as rated by the inspector and as evidenced by the results of written examinations. The evil effects of this system soon became apparent and resulted in its discontinuance in 1882, some 15 years before it met the same fate in England.

17. The administration of school business also changed during Ryerson's tenure of office. The Common Schools Act of 1846, as stated above, abolished the position of local superintendent of common schools and conferred his duties on the district superintendents. This meant that in towns there was no longer a locally appointed official apportioning and accounting for the moneys received from the public treasury. Provision was made, however, for appointment by each corporation of school trustees of a secretary-treasurer from among its members to keep the minutes of its proceedings in a minute book and to be accountable for the moneys collected in the school section. Other school business was left to the trustees, but it is probable that many administrative duties, such as the maintenance of school buildings, and the preparation of reports to the district superintendent, were assigned by the trustees to the secretary-treasurer. The School Act for Cities and Towns of 1847 placed all schools in each urban municipality under the jurisdiction of one board of trustees. Since boards were required to administer the affairs of several schools, their duties became more complex and, as a result, new administrative procedures developed.

18. By the Act of 1847³ an *ad hoc* local education authority was empowered for the first time to appoint its own local superintendent of schools. This official tended to become the executive arm of the board. Another method of administration employed in a number of school units was the adoption of the system of standing committees of the board. The Act of 1847 expressly provided that a committee composed of 3 members of the board should be assigned the special care of each school. Ryerson suggested in his "Circular to the Mayors of Cities and Towns in Upper

¹18 Vict., Ch. 132, Secs. 1-2, S.P.C.

²34 Vict., Ch. 33, S.O.

³10 & 11 Vict., Ch. 19, Sec. 5(4), S.P.C.

Canada”¹ that a “Committee on School Houses” and a “Committee on Teachers, School Books, and Schools” be formed. Some of the matters which Ryerson suggested be referred to these committees were: to provide accommodation for schools; to arrange for the repair of premises; to supply furnishings, equipment, and fuel; and to supply recommended school books to pupils whose parents were indigent.

19. The Act of 1850² authorized the appointment of a trustee or other person to the position of secretary-treasurer. For cities, towns, and incorporated villages it authorized the appointment by the school board of a secretary and a superintendent of schools and specified their duties. Most duties now classified as “school business” were left under the direct control of the school board; the board might delegate them either to the secretary or to the superintendent.

Development Since 1876

20. The basic pattern of supervision and business administration became well established during Ryerson’s tenure of office. The remaining years of the nineteenth century might be termed a period of consolidation. In the late 1880’s there were complaints that the schools were over-inspected and over-governed. The Minister in his annual report for 1893 stated that the annual visits of inspectors were more for examination than instruction. By 1896 there were murmurs that, through inspectors, teachers were muzzled by the Department.³ The duties of inspectors had by this time so multiplied through the addition of such responsibilities as reports, teachers’ institutes, the conduct of departmental examinations, and lectures at the model schools, that they had little time for classroom supervision.

21. By 1920 a critical point in the administration of supervision had been reached. Prescribed qualifications of inspectors were so high and salaries so low that there was a dearth of candidates for appointment. The position of inspector had come to be regarded as one to which a successful principal of a collegiate institute might aspire for his last few years of active service. In 1920 the Minister of Education announced changes in the prescribed qualifications for the position, designed to admit elementary school teachers who had secured high standing in their Pass B.A. course. In succeeding years a large number of comparatively young men who had had recent teaching experience in elementary schools were appointed as inspectors. At the same time the Minister suggested that it would be advantageous for inspectors to be appointed by the Department of Education rather than by county councils, but ten years were to elapse before this proposal was carried out.

22. The work and responsibilities of elementary school inspectors in-

¹January, 1848.

²13 & 14 Vict., Ch. 48, Sec. 12(1), S.P.C.

³J. G. Althouse, *The Ontario Teacher*, Unpublished Doctor’s Thesis, University of Toronto, 1929, pp. 214-215.

creased rapidly. V. K. Greer, at that time Chief Inspector of Public and Separate Schools, in his report of 1928 expressed concern at the amount of time spent by inspectors in routine administrative duties:

It is true that at the present time too much of the Inspector's time is consumed in duties which have not a sufficient bearing on the improvement of the work in the classroom. Over a period of years the official reports, correspondence, the distribution of grants, etc., have added greatly to the Inspector's duties and there is grave danger that routine clerical duties may take precedence over the chief function of the Inspector, viz., to show teachers by demonstration teaching and by sympathetic suggestions how they may further improve their work in the classroom.¹

The latter part of this statement shows how the concept of the purpose of supervision held by officials of the Department of Education had changed from one in which the work of the teacher only had to be examined and reported upon, to one of co-operation with the teacher to effect improvement in his work. There can be little doubt that one of the underlying reasons for this change was the rapid increase in the proportion of teachers with professional training gained through attendance at provincially controlled teacher training institutions—from 22 per cent in 1875 to 95 per cent in 1929.

23. At this time there were three ways of appointing inspectors. District and separate school inspectors were appointed by the Minister of Education. Local education authorities in cities might, if they so desired, appoint their own inspectors or superintendents of schools. County inspectors were appointed by county councils, which tended to be primarily interested in inspection as a means of ascertaining the results obtained from the expenditure of funds.

24. The Chief Inspector continued to stress the importance of the inspectors' work in the classroom, and urged the inspectors to secure adequate clerical assistance to relieve them of many routine office duties. The following extract from his report of 1928 indicates the relative importance placed by the Department on the newer aims of supervision:

. . . the keynotes of the Inspector's work at the present time are co-operation with the people and the giving of real help in school matters and particularly toward improvement in the classroom work. And it is found that these methods are bringing about greater advancement. The General Annual Reports of the Inspectors indicate this closer co-operation and keener interest in the improvement of the work done in the schools.²

25. In 1930 an amendment to *The Public Schools Act*³ decreed that, henceforth, inspectors, except those appointed locally in cities, were to be appointed by Order-in-Council upon the recommendation of the Minister

¹*Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1928, p. 5.*

²*Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1928, p. 3.*

³*The School Law Amendment Act, 1930, 20 Geo. V, Ch. 63, S.O.*

of Education. Although this change represented an increase in centralization, it did not mean more central control over the actual work in the classroom. In the amendment, the first duty of the inspector was defined as follows:

. . . to bring about improvement in the work done in the classrooms by inspiring the teachers and pupils and by sympathetically assisting the teachers to improve their practice.¹

At the same time, inspectors were permitted to secure clerical assistance in order to relieve them of many administrative and clerical duties.

26. A practice designed to provide more assistance for teachers was initiated on an experimental basis in September, 1937, at which time a supervising teacher was assigned by the Minister to work with one of the county inspectors. By the end of the year, the Minister reported that the following results were evident: more assistance was being given to new and inexperienced teachers; newer phases of the work, such as health teaching, social studies, and games, were receiving more attention; and the inspector had more time to meet teachers in groups, to plan the work of the inspectorate, and to give more adequate supervision to classroom instruction. By the end of 1947 four supervising teachers had been appointed.

27. These provisions were not enough, however, to stem the tide of the ever increasing administrative duties placed upon inspectors; as new policies in education developed, administrative duties occupied more and more of their time. In order to provide assistance to inspectors and to train prospective inspectors, the Minister, in 1946, began to appoint assistant inspectors.

28. The present Superintendent of Elementary Education has stated that because of promotional work in connection with township school areas and high school districts, because of extensive building programmes, and because of additional work required under recent legislative grant plans, the elementary school inspector has been called upon to spend a greater proportion of his time in administrative work than during any previous period in the history of elementary school supervision in Ontario.

29. Shortly after the turn of the twentieth century the province was divided into three districts for the purpose of secondary school inspection. Each high school inspector was required to visit the schools in his district at least once a year, and at the end of two years districts were exchanged. The inspector was guided by the educational standards prescribed for high schools, and it was his duty to see that these were maintained. In the inspection of high school premises and the equipment of high schools, he had duties comparable to those of a public school inspector. As an official of the Department, he prepared the papers for the high school entrance and other examinations.² During this period, under the superin-

¹*Ibid.*, Sec. 117 (1)(a).

²G. W. Ross, *The School System of Ontario*, New York: Appleton, 1896.

tendency of Dr. John Seath, the supervision of secondary education reached such a peak of "efficiency" that it has been described as "at once one of the most uniformly efficient in the world and one of the most paralysing to individual initiative in teacher or school."¹

30. Since 1871 the statutory powers and duties of a locally appointed city school inspector and of the secretary-treasurer of a board have remained practically unaltered. The latter, as treasurer, is required to receive all moneys and account for them, and to disburse them as directed by the board; as secretary he is required to keep a full and correct record of the proceedings of every meeting of the board and to transmit to the inspector all returns according to a prescribed form. There is no provision in any of the Acts for delegating to him any of the other powers and duties of the board. However, a city school board employing more than one school inspector is empowered to assign to them such additional powers and duties as it may deem expedient. The board is also empowered to appoint such other officers as it deems necessary and to prescribe their duties. It has been in accordance with this provision, apparently, that school business officials have been appointed in some cities of Ontario. Many of the powers delegated to these officers are not prescribed duties of the secretary-treasurer.

PRESENT ORGANIZATION FOR, AND ADMINISTRATION OF, THE SUPERVISION OF EDUCATION

Under the Central Education Authority

31. The Department of Education is, essentially, an organization for the supervision of educational programmes in publicly supported schools. In this respect its activities may be classified either according to the type of supervisory service offered or according to the method of supervision employed. Under the first classification they may be divided into four phases: inspection; the improvement of instruction; organizational activities and public relations; and business administration. The second classification includes supervision by field workers who, through on-the-spot evaluation and consultation, attempt to bring about improvement in classroom instruction, and supervision by officials in the central offices of the Department, who co-ordinate the work of the field men and assist in the formulation and implementation of new policies. Field workers as well as officials of the central office have duties in connection with each of the four phases of supervisory service enumerated above.

32. The purposes of "inspection" include the following: to evaluate the school programme, plant, and equipment; to determine whether regulations of the Department are being followed; and to collect information for the Minister and in some cases for schools boards. Inspection is conducted by elementary school inspectors and secondary school inspectors. There are

¹Watson Kirkconnell, *A Canadian Headmaster*, Toronto: Clarke, Irwin, 1935.

116 of the former, all of whom reside within their inspectorates; 91 of them are public school inspectors, and 25 are separate school inspectors. The work of the elementary school inspectors is directed and co-ordinated from Toronto by a Superintendent of Elementary Education and 4 assistant superintendents. There are 23 secondary school inspectors, with headquarters in Toronto: 14 high school inspectors, directly responsible to the Superintendent of Secondary Education; and 9 vocational school inspectors.¹ Those in the latter group, together with an Assistant Director of Vocational Education, are responsible through the Director of Vocational Education to the Superintendent of Secondary Education.

33. "Improvement of instruction" connotes primarily helping teachers to improve their practice through the proper use of materials and supplies, through the use of effective methods, by the introduction of new materials and techniques, and by the enrichment of the school programme. The Department assists in the improvement of instruction in two ways. It operates a teacher-training programme, and it provides in-service training through inspectors and summer school courses. Supervisors of special subjects, such as the Directors of Art, Music, Physical Education, and Guidance, and the Inspector of Auxiliary Classes, all with headquarters in Toronto, are also directly concerned with the improvement of classroom instruction.

34. "Organizational activities and public relations" are also important functions of the Department of Education. They include such actions as campaigns for the formation of larger high school districts and township school areas, and explanation of departmental policies to the general public.

35. By "business administration" is meant such aspects of supervision as the determination of grants, preparation and analysis of accounts, approval of building sites and plans, preparation of records, analysis of attendance, and similar matters. Here again, elementary and secondary school inspectors are the field workers. From them the departmental officials concerned with business administration obtain most of the basic data for their work.

Supervision Under Local Education Authorities

36. Little supervision is entrusted to local education authorities. An exception to this general rule occurs in the case of 12 of the larger cities, which have chosen to appoint their own inspectors, subject to the approval of the Minister. In these 12 cities there are 25 inspectors. They are not always given this title; some have the title "director of education", others "superintendent of schools", and still others "inspector of public schools". Some have supervision over both public elementary and secondary schools, others over public schools only.

37. It is in business administration that local authorities have the greatest freedom. All boards are required to appoint secretary-treasurers and

¹*Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1948, p. 270.*

are empowered to assign whatever duties they see fit to their chief administrative officers. Many of them have appointed business administrators. In some cases, as in the City of London, the Superintendent of Schools is also the Business Administrator and has under him an official in charge of business affairs. In other cities, such as Toronto, the Director of Education and the Business Administrator have co-ordinate authority.

38. Local education authorities have a great but undeveloped avenue for the control of supervision through the use of school principals as supervisors. There is a growing tendency, especially in large schools and systems, to free the principal from instructional duties and even from administrative duties, in order to make more time available for him to work with the teaching staff for the improvement of instruction in the school. Some local education authorities have appointed local supervisors of special subjects, such as music, art, guidance, and auxiliary classes. Other authorities, unable to provide an inspector of their own, have appointed a supervising principal.

Training of Supervisory Personnel

39. Elementary school inspectors in Ontario are generally experienced and well-trained individuals. They must hold a Public School Inspector's Certificate, whether they supervise public or separate schools. To obtain this certificate the candidate must hold either an honours or a pass degree from a British university with a standard of at least 66 per cent in the final examinations, and must have successfully completed prescribed courses in pedagogy. He must have a Permanent First Class Teaching Certificate, and he must have taken a prescribed course in agriculture and in education or auxiliary education. He is required to have had at least seven years' successful teaching experience in the schools of the Ontario provincial system, at least two of which must have been in elementary schools. He must pass a medical examination conducted by a medical examiner appointed by the Minister and possess personal qualifications satisfactory to the Minister. He is also required to pass a written and an oral examination in administration and supervision, based on the school Acts, regulations, programmes of study, textbooks, and manuals pertaining to elementary education in Ontario.

40. Some provision is made by the Department of Education for in-service training of inspectors. A considerable number are invited to act as members of staff for departmental summer courses. From time to time inspectors are permitted by the Minister to attend or teach summer school courses in other provinces or in the United States. The Superintendent of Elementary Education and the assistant superintendents endeavour to visit the inspectors regularly to discuss problems with them and to render any assistance required.

41. A prospective principal of an elementary school is not required to possess any prescribed qualifications except an elementary school teaching certificate valid in Ontario. The Department of Education, however, has recently provided two-week refresher courses for principals of elementary schools. The gratifying response indicates that principals feel a need for such training.

42. High school inspectors are specialists in particular subjects. Most of them have had successful experience as secondary school principals, and all hold a High School Principal's Certificate. Inspectors in the Vocational Education Branch are also specialists and have had successful experience as teachers or principals. At the present time there is no prescribed training or certification for secondary school inspectors.

43. The Department of Education grants a High School Principal's Certificate but does not prescribe specialized professional training or experience. A teacher who holds a permanent teaching certificate valid in high schools and who has had at least three years' successful teaching experience in such schools may, upon the recommendation of his inspector, be granted a High School Principal's Certificate. For a Vocational School Principal's Certificate, however, successful completion of a summer school course is required. Heads of departments in secondary schools must hold specialist standing in their subject or subjects.

Duties and Training of School Business Officials

44. The duties and responsibilities of a typical school business official in Ontario are as follows:

- (1) To supervise the operation of the offices of the board.
- (2) To prepare the annual budget.
- (3) To supervise the operation and maintenance of school buildings.
- (4) To keep proper books of account and control expenditures within the budget.
- (5) To issue cheques, prepare payrolls, and pay invoices of account.
- (6) To prepare annual financial statements and forms for payment of legislative grants.
- (7) To purchase school supplies.
- (8) To handle claims, insurance of buildings, and other types of insurance.
- (9) To maintain inventories of supplies and equipment.
- (10) In co-operation with other officials and the board, to plan new school buildings and accommodation, in particular such items as come under the heading of capital outlay.

Many school business officials also act as treasurer of the board and in that capacity are responsible for receiving, disbursing, and accounting for all school moneys. Only a few of the functions of a business official as outlined above are prescribed by law as duties of the secretary; the others are duties of the board delegated to the school business official.

45. Every local education authority, no matter how small its jurisdiction, employs a business official, although in the majority of cases he is a secretary-treasurer on a part-time basis. The duties of a secretary-treasurer increase in proportion to the size of the administrative unit; but it is usually only in cities that secretary-treasurers are employed on a full-time basis. Where a full-time official is employed, the tendency is for the board to delegate more and more executive authority to him. Thus in all except the larger urban centres in Ontario the secretary-treasurer or business administrator has become the executive arm of the board.

46. Two factors have combined to discourage the practice of having a single executive officer employed by a board to supervise the whole educational programme. In the first place, the powers of a local education authority with respect to supervision of education are strictly limited by the central authority. Thus a supervisory official, even though appointed by the board, derives most of his authority from the Acts and regulations of the Department, whereas the significant authority of the business official derives directly from the board. In the second place, while every local authority is required to employ a school business official, only a very few employ a supervisory staff. Although there is no suggestion that any business official wishes to attain ascendancy over the chief educational official, the very nature of their respective powers together with the derivation of their offices tends to favour the business official.

47. Four of the ten cities which appoint their own inspectors have adopted a unitary system of responsibility in which the superintendent or director of education, as the case may be, is also the secretary-treasurer of the board. Some cities employ a director of education responsible for the supervision of instruction in both public and secondary schools and a business administrator with co-ordinate authority responsible directly to the board. One large city employs three officials with co-ordinate authority: a director of elementary education, a superintendent of secondary education, and a business administrator. Another large city has a superintendent of schools, with supervisory powers over the elementary schools only, and a business administrator. The remaining cities and towns follow one or other of these plans.

48. No special training is provided for, and no certificate is required of, school business officials.

RECOMMENDATIONS RELATING TO THE SUPERVISION OF EDUCATION

Organization for Supervision

49. Our ultimate aim in planning a system of educational administration for Ontario has been to establish large units within which an elected education authority would have jurisdiction over all stages of education in all publicly supported schools. The Minister might delegate to such a

board control of much of the *externa* and *interna* of education, thus effecting decentralization in educational administration and supervision and achieving unification of the educational programme.

50. Unfortunately, since it has been necessary to continue the independent administration of separate schools,¹ a unitary system of administration cannot be attained. Furthermore, since we have not deemed it advisable to recommend the mandatory establishment of regional boards of education, many public school boards will operate independently of boards administering post-elementary education. Under these circumstances, a uniform system of supervision of education cannot be established; it must be adapted to meet the conditions imposed by the varying types of administrative organization.

51. In our opinion the programmes in separate schools should continue to be supervised by officials residing in a local inspectorate but appointed by the Minister of Education. In order to promote unification of supervision, all supervisory officials in a region, whether appointed by the Minister or by a local education authority, should co-operate to improve instruction and the general educational programme. We recommend

- (a) *that the supervision of instruction in separate schools be conducted by officials appointed by, and responsible to, the Minister of Education;*
- (b) *that such an official be designated "inspector of separate schools"² and be required to reside in his inspectorate.*

52. Decentralization of supervision will be feasible in those regions which adopt the urban or rural regional board of education type of administration.³ The most effective method of supervision in such regions will be that in which, subject to the approval of the Minister, the regional board employs its own officials for the supervision of instruction in public elementary and secondary schools. Regional boards of education should be permitted to appoint a "regional director of education", assistant directors, and a "regional business administrator" with responsibility for the conduct of the business affairs of the board. Assistant directors should be qualified as inspectors of elementary and secondary schools, and should be responsible for the supervision of instruction in the public elementary and secondary schools of the region. Supervising teachers might be appointed to work in co-operation with the assistant directors. Other supervisory functions will, of course, be exercised by principals, and by heads of departments in secondary schools and junior colleges.

53. Two advantages of supervision organized under regional directors of education are as follows:

¹See Chapter XIX.

²In regions where all supervisory officials are appointed by the Minister, the inspector of separate schools would also normally be an assistant superintendent. See paragraph 56, below.

³See Chapter XI.

- (1) There will be integration of the work of public elementary and post-elementary schools through the appointment of a director and assistant directors of education responsible for the supervision of education at all levels.
- (2) There will be integration through the conduct of the business affairs of the board by the business administrator.

54. We recommend

- (a) *that a regional board of education be empowered to appoint a regional director of education and assistant directors, to administer the educational programme and to supervise instruction in public elementary and secondary schools;*
- (b) *that a regional board of education be empowered to employ a business administrator to conduct the business affairs of the board.*

55. Where a regional board of education employs a regional director of education and other supervisory officials, we believe that there should be a unitary system of responsibility for business administration and supervision. Those cities, however, in which in the past a board of school trustees has been accustomed to appoint a director (or superintendent) of education and a business administrator with co-ordinate authority should be permitted to continue the practice. Accordingly we recommend

that, except in those cities where present practice differs and where the board elects to continue it, the business administrator be responsible to the regional board of education through the director of education.

56. Where the regional board of education type of administration is not adopted, and where the regional board of education does not elect to appoint its own supervisory officials, control of supervision should not be delegated to local education authorities. For these regions, therefore, it will be necessary for the Minister to appoint supervisory officials, but a unified system of supervision should be organized. For each region or group of regions a "regional superintendent of education" and assistant superintendents should be appointed by the Minister, and should be required to reside locally. A regional superintendent, unlike a regional director, should be assigned responsibility for the supervision of instruction in separate schools as well as in public and secondary schools. We recommend

that, where supervision of instruction in public, separate, and secondary schools is conducted by officials appointed by the Minister of Education,

- (i) *such officials be required to reside locally;*
- (ii) *for a region (or group of regions) the supervisory organization consist of a regional superintendent of education and assistant superintendents, responsible to the Minister through the superintendents of elementary and secondary education of the Department of Education.*

57. Each local education authority will require the services of a secretary-treasurer or business administrator to conduct the business of the board, as recommended in the case of regional boards of education. According, we recommend

that each local education authority be required to appoint a secretary and a treasurer, a secretary-treasurer, or a business administrator.

58. Supervisory officials appointed by the Minister should be relieved as much as possible from routine administrative and clerical duties. Those aspects of business administration which in the past have been a responsibility of provincial inspectors and have consumed so much of their time should be a function of an employee in each region—appointed for the purpose by the Minister—attached to the staff of the regional superintendent of education. We recommend

that the Minister appoint an assistant to the staff of each regional superintendent to conduct the business administration of the office of the regional superintendent.

59. The supervision of instruction in junior colleges should be conducted by supervisors who are specialists in subjects of the programme. Owing to the limited number of officials that will be required in the province for this purpose, such officials should be appointed by the Minister of Education to supervise instruction in all junior colleges. But general supervision and administration of the junior colleges located in a region should be a responsibility of the regional superintendent or regional director of education. We recommend

(a) *that supervision of instruction in junior colleges and junior college departments be conducted by officials appointed by the Minister of Education and attached to the Division of Further Education, Department of Education;*

(b) *that general supervision and administration of junior colleges and junior college departments, subject to the supervision of instruction specified above, be a responsibility of regional superintendents and regional directors of education.*

Qualifications of Supervisory Officials

60. The attainment of an adequate educational programme depends to a large extent on the work of supervisory officials. They should be individuals with high personal, academic, and professional qualifications who have had wide experience as teachers and administrators in schools in more than one stage of the educational system. Since their duties may include the supervision of instruction in both elementary and secondary schools, we recommend

(a) *that a candidate for appointment as regional director or regional superintendent of education, regional assistant director or assistant*

- superintendent of education, or inspector of separate schools be required to hold a certificate of qualification as an inspector of elementary and secondary schools;*
- (b) that an Elementary and Secondary School Inspector's Certificate be authorized by the Minister of Education;*
 - (c) that an Elementary and Secondary School Inspector's Certificate be awarded to a candidate who*
 - (i) holds from a university a degree approved by the Minister as to standard and content of courses, with a standard of 66 per cent on the final examinations, and for which English has been taken throughout the course;*
 - (ii) preferably holds a post-graduate degree in education;*
 - (iii) holds a Permanent Elementary School Teaching Certificate and a Permanent Secondary School Teaching Certificate or their equivalents;*
 - (iv) has had at least six years' successful teaching experience in the schools of the Ontario provincial system, or the equivalent;*
 - (v) has passed a medical examination conducted by a medical examiner appointed by the Minister;*
 - (vi) possesses high personal qualifications;*
 - (vii) has passed written and oral examinations on supervision, based on the Acts, regulations, programmes of study, and textbooks pertaining to elementary and secondary education in Ontario.*

61. We appreciate that for some years there may not be a sufficient number of persons, holding the qualifications we have specified, available for appointment to senior supervisory positions. Nor is it intended that those at present in such positions be disqualified if they do not possess these qualifications. Accordingly, we recommend

that for appointments in the immediate future to the positions of director, superintendent, assistant director, and assistant superintendent care be taken to ensure that at least one senior supervisory official in a region shall have had successful teaching experience in an elementary school, and at least one other shall have had successful teaching experience in a secondary school.

62. Principals of schools have important supervisory functions to perform. We feel that prospective principals should undergo a course of training leading to a principal's certificate. We recommend

- (a) that summer school courses be established by the Minister of Education leading to an Elementary School Principal's Certificate, a Secondary School Principal's Certificate, and a Junior College Principal's Certificate, and that, after due notice has been given, possession of the appropriate certificate be required as a condition of appointment to the principalship of an elementary school of four or more classrooms, of a secondary school, or of a junior college;*

- (b) *that an Elementary School Principal's Certificate be granted to a candidate who possesses personal qualifications satisfactory to the Minister, holds a Permanent Elementary School Teaching Certificate or its equivalent, has demonstrated evidence of administrative ability, and has successfully completed the prescribed departmental summer school course or its equivalent;*
- (c) *that a Secondary School Principal's Certificate be granted to a candidate who possesses personal qualifications satisfactory to the Minister, holds a Permanent Secondary School Teaching Certificate or its equivalent, has demonstrated evidence of administrative ability, and has successfully completed the prescribed departmental summer school course or its equivalent;*
- (d) *that a Junior College Principal's Certificate be granted to a candidate who possesses personal qualifications satisfactory to the Minister, holds a Permanent Junior College Teaching Certificate or its equivalent, has demonstrated evidence of administrative ability, and has successfully completed the prescribed departmental summer school course or its equivalent.*

Qualifications of Business Administrators

63. It is normally desirable that a business administrator should be experienced in both accounting and educational administration. The desire of the school business officials at present employed in the province to give the best possible service to their boards and communities is shown by their advocacy of the establishment of a special course on school business administration leading to a certificate to be issued by the Department of Education.¹ We recommend

- (a) *that a School Business Administrator's Certificate be authorized by the Minister of Education;*
- (b) *that a School Business Administrator's Certificate be awarded to a candidate who successfully completes a summer school course of five weeks' duration established and operated by the Department of Education;*
- (c) *that, for admission to this course, applicants be required to have had several years' successful experience in accounting or business management or, alternatively, in educational administration as principals or inspectors.*

64. The programme of the summer school course should include subject matter relating to the duties and responsibilities of a business administrator in a larger unit of administration. The standard and content of the courses and the requirements for admission should be sufficient to ensure that the educational outlook, training, and qualifications of business administrators will be commensurate with the important duties they will have to perform.

¹Resolution of the Ontario Association of School Business Officials, 1947.

CHAPTER XIV

THE CENTRAL EDUCATION AUTHORITY

NATURE OF THE CENTRAL AUTHORITY

1. The electors of our province, through the exercise of the franchise, constitute the ultimate authority in all matters concerning public education in Ontario, subject to the express limitations of Section 93 of the *British North America Act*. Since 1867, by the terms of this Act, the Legislature, representing the electors of the province, has had the right to constitute a central education authority and to determine its nature. Even before 1867 the Legislature of Upper Canada delegated some of its powers relating to education to a central authority and some to local authorities. Today, the central education authority in Ontario is the Department of Education.¹ The duties and powers relating to education which are at present delegated by the Legislature to the Department of Education are outlined in *The Department of Education Act*, while those delegated to local education authorities may be found in various Acts relating to different types of schools, such as *The High Schools Act*, *The Public Schools Act*, *The Separate Schools Act*, *The Vocational Schools Act*, and *The Boards of Education Act*.

2. A department of government, such as the Department of Education, is often thought to be composed of a Deputy Minister and his staff. This is a misconception; such persons are the officers and clerks of the department. A department of government is a committee of the Executive Council, or the Executive Council itself constituted for a specific purpose. Section 1 of *The Executive Council Act*, R.S.O. 1937, Ch. 14, reads:

1. The Executive Council shall be composed of such persons as the Lieutenant-Governor^[2] from time to time appoints and all Executive Councillors so appointed shall be Ministers of the Crown, and shall rank among themselves in the order of their appointments respectively.

Under Section 2 of the same Act, the Lieutenant-Governor may appoint under the Great Seal, from among the Ministers of the Crown, Ministers to the offices therein enumerated "and such other Ministers as he may see

¹For a history of this development, see Chapter VII.

²Appointment by the Lieutenant-Governor is a formality; members of the Executive Council are chosen by the leader of the political party in power.

fit, and may by Order-in-Council prescribe their duties and the duties of the several departments over which they preside and of the officers and clerks thereof." But it has become the practice, in Ontario at least, to pass an Act relating to the Department when new portfolios are created, e.g., *The Department of Agriculture Act*, *The Department of Education Act*, *The Department of Labour Act*, *The Department of Municipal Affairs Act*, and *The Department of Welfare Act*.

3. A Minister is the head of a department. As a member of the Executive Council, he determines departmental policy, which is executed under his direction by the Deputy Minister and other departmental officials. The function of a Deputy Minister is primarily to manage his department, and neither he nor any other official of the department may make decisions determining policy unless specific statutory authority so provides. This, then, is the constitutional framework under which the Department of Education has grown to its present size and influence.

DEVELOPMENT AND PRESENT STATUS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

4. Sections 63 and 134 of the *British North America Act* prescribed the composition of the first Executive Council of the provinces of Ontario and Quebec. Five Ministers were named—the Attorney-General, the Secretary and Registrar, the Treasurer, the Commissioner of Crown Lands, and the Commissioner of Agriculture and Public Works. The Department of Education was created as the successor of the "Council of Public Instruction" under Chapter 16 of the Statutes of 1876, Section 1 of which reads:

1. The functions of the Council of Public Instruction are hereby suspended, and all the powers and duties which the said Council now possesses or may exercise by virtue of any statute in that behalf, shall devolve and are hereby devolved upon the Education Department, which shall consist of the Executive Council, or a Committee thereof appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor; and all the functions and duties of the Chief Superintendent of Education are hereby vested in one of the said Executive Council, to be nominated by the Lieutenant-Governor and to be designated 'Minister of Education'; and whenever in any statute, by-law, regulation, deed, proceeding, matter or thing, the term 'Council of Public Instruction', or 'Chief Superintendent of Education' (as the case may be), or to the like signification, respectively occurs, the same shall be construed and have effect as if the term 'Education Department' or 'Minister of Education' was substituted therefor respectively.

5. The Minister of Education was the first Minister added to the Executive Council after Confederation. He was one of the six Executive Councillors named in 1877 in *An Act Respecting the Executive Council*,¹ and the status of the Department began to be defined in the same year. *An Act Respecting the Education Department*² read in part:

¹R.S.O., 1877, Ch. 14.

²R.S.O., 1877, Ch. 203, Sec. 1.

1. There shall be a Department of Education which shall consist of the Executive Council, or a committee thereof appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor; and one of the said Executive Council, to be nominated by the Lieutenant-Governor,^[1] shall hold the office of 'Minister of Education'.

This Section was carried forward in succeeding Acts up to and including that of 1906. In 1909 the Section was amended to read as follows:

3.—(1) There shall be a Department of the Government of Ontario to be known as 'The Department of Education', which shall be presided over by the Minister of Education.²

The present *Department of Education Act* incorporates this Section with the wording unchanged.

Present Organization of the Department of Education

6. There is no statute or regulation governing the organization of the Department of Education, since this is a responsibility of the Minister of Education. The present arrangement is complex, owing to the many changes which have been made from time to time to meet new administrative needs. In the accompanying charts (Figures 1-4) the branches of the Department and the titles of senior officials are shown as of January, 1950.

7. The Chief Director is the chief education officer. He is the Minister's chief adviser and consultant on all matters pertaining to the Department. He presents to the Minister the reports, recommendations, and memoranda of all officials and conveys to the officials the Minister's directions on educational policy and other matters. The Deputy Minister, on the second level of responsibility, is charged with the internal administration of the Department. He conducts official correspondence and, in general, is responsible for the clerical staff, equipment and supplies, payment of grants and accounts, and routine administration of the Department. Thus, although the Deputy Minister is subordinate to the Chief Director, a definite dualism in their functions exists; the latter is responsible chiefly for instructional, and the former for administrative, matters.

8. The Department is composed of 23 divisions, 20 of which are termed "Branches". Eleven divisions of the Department might be termed "primary", since their chief officials are responsible directly to the Chief Director, to the Deputy Minister, or to both. The remaining divisions might be termed "secondary", since their chief officials are responsible to the heads of one or more of the 11 "primary" divisions. The organization of the "primary" and "secondary" divisions may be shown as follows:

"Primary" Divisions

1. Chief Accountant's Branch
2. Statistics Branch
3. Correspondence Branch

¹In practice, the Prime Minister selects the member to be nominated as Minister of Education.

²9 Edw. VII, Ch. 88, S.O.

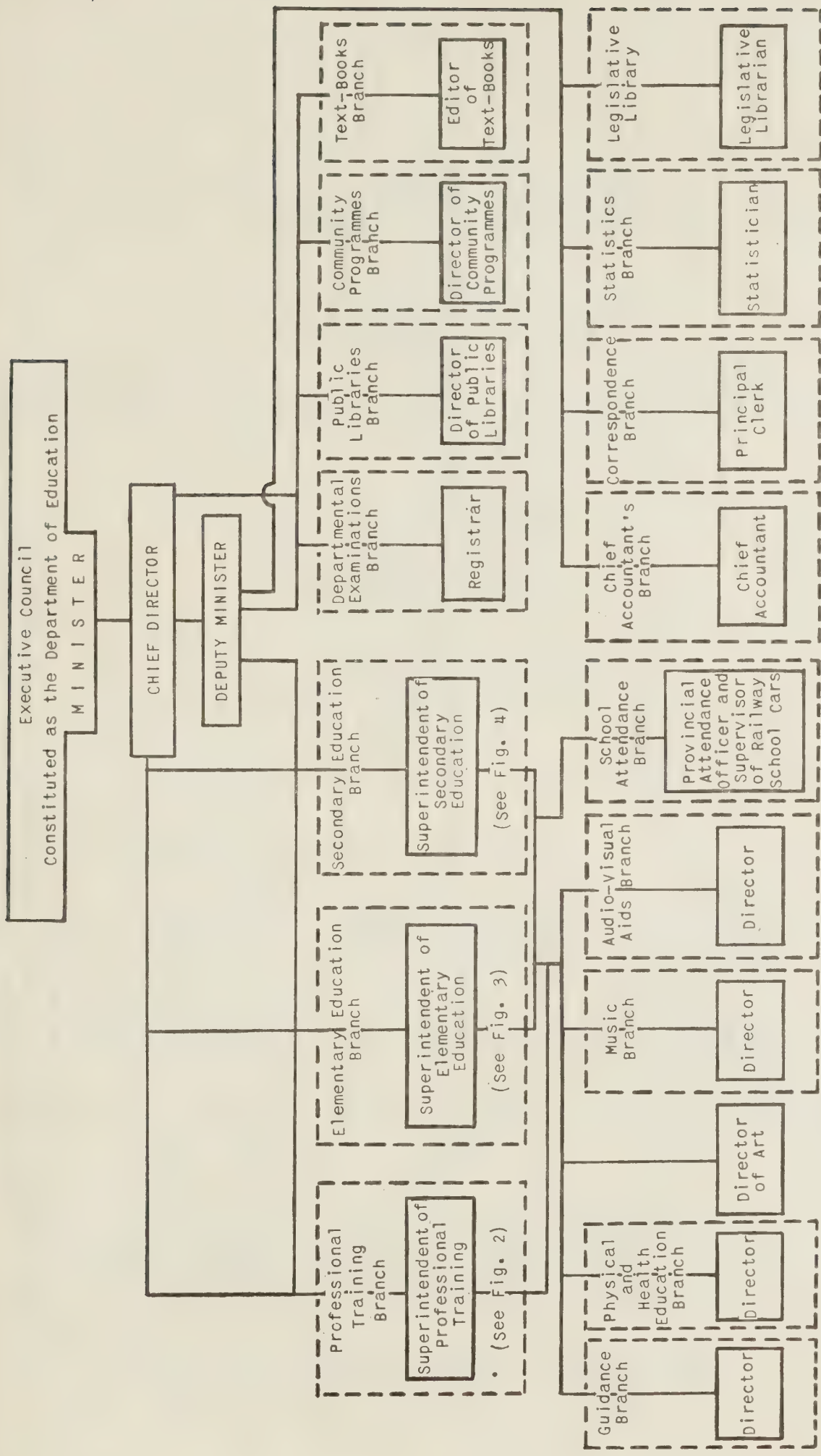


FIG. 1. PRESENT ORGANIZATION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
(To be read in conjunction with Figures 2, 3, and 4)

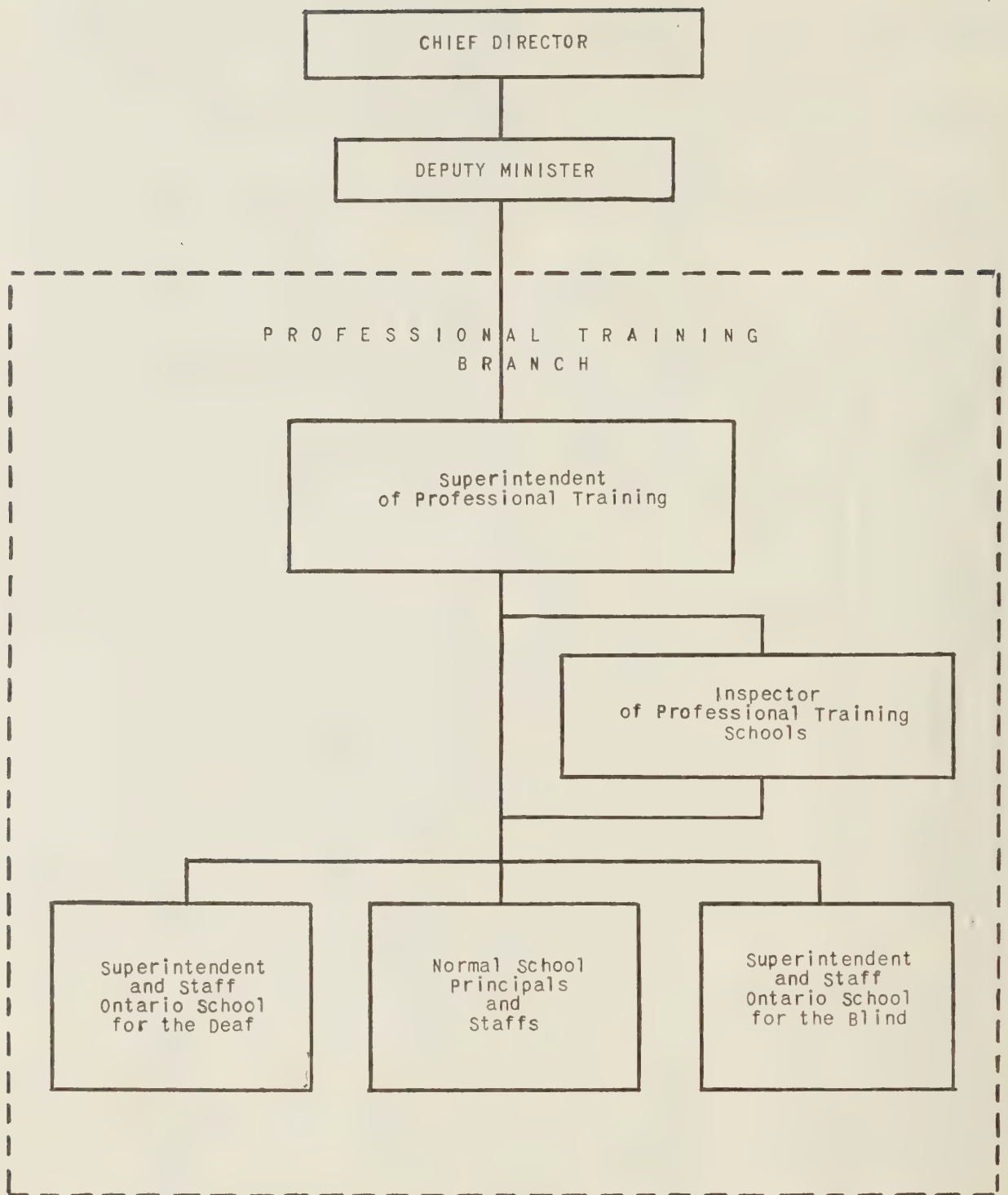


FIG. 2. PRESENT ORGANIZATION OF THE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING BRANCH OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

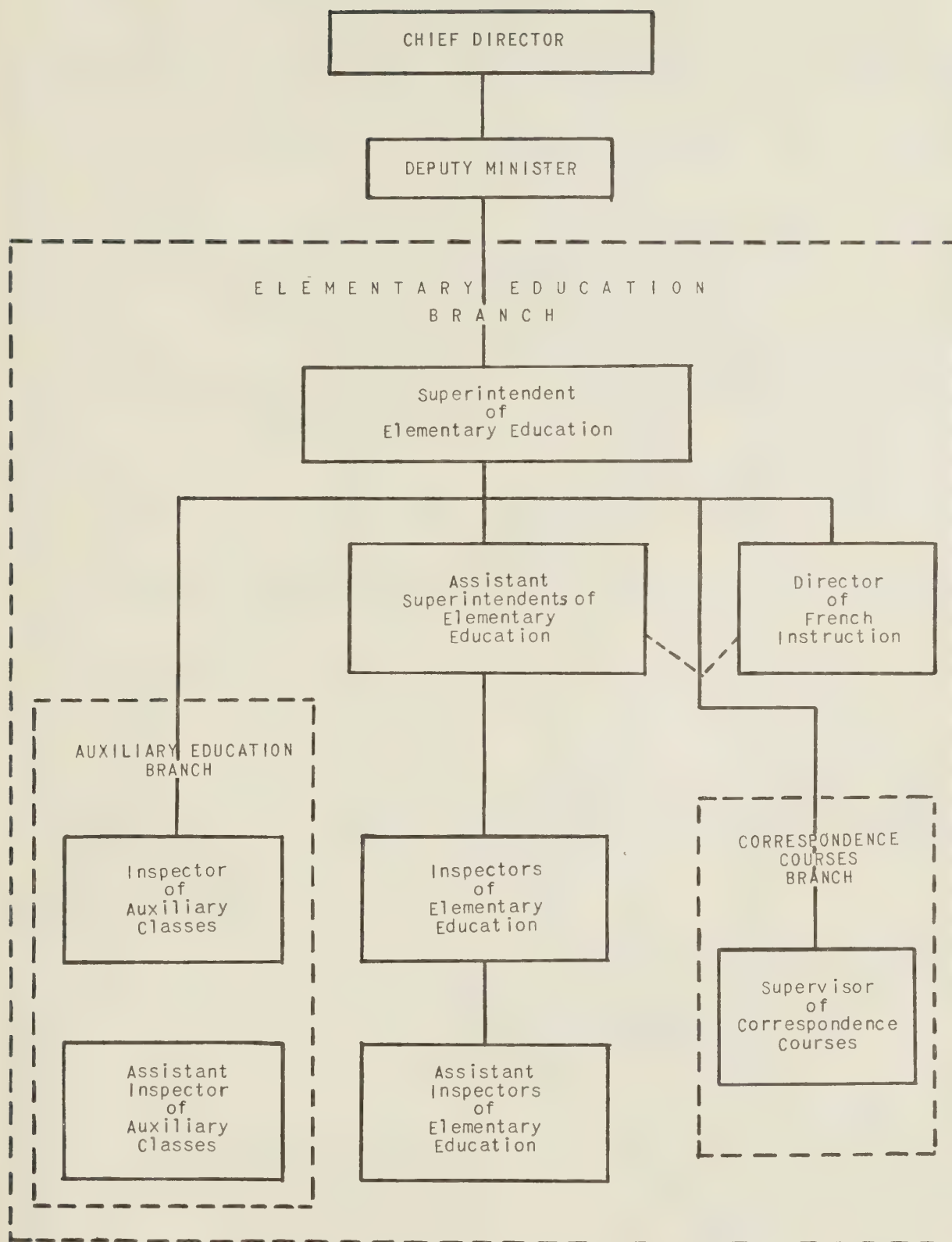


FIG. 3. PRESENT ORGANIZATION OF THE ELEMENTARY EDUCATION BRANCH OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

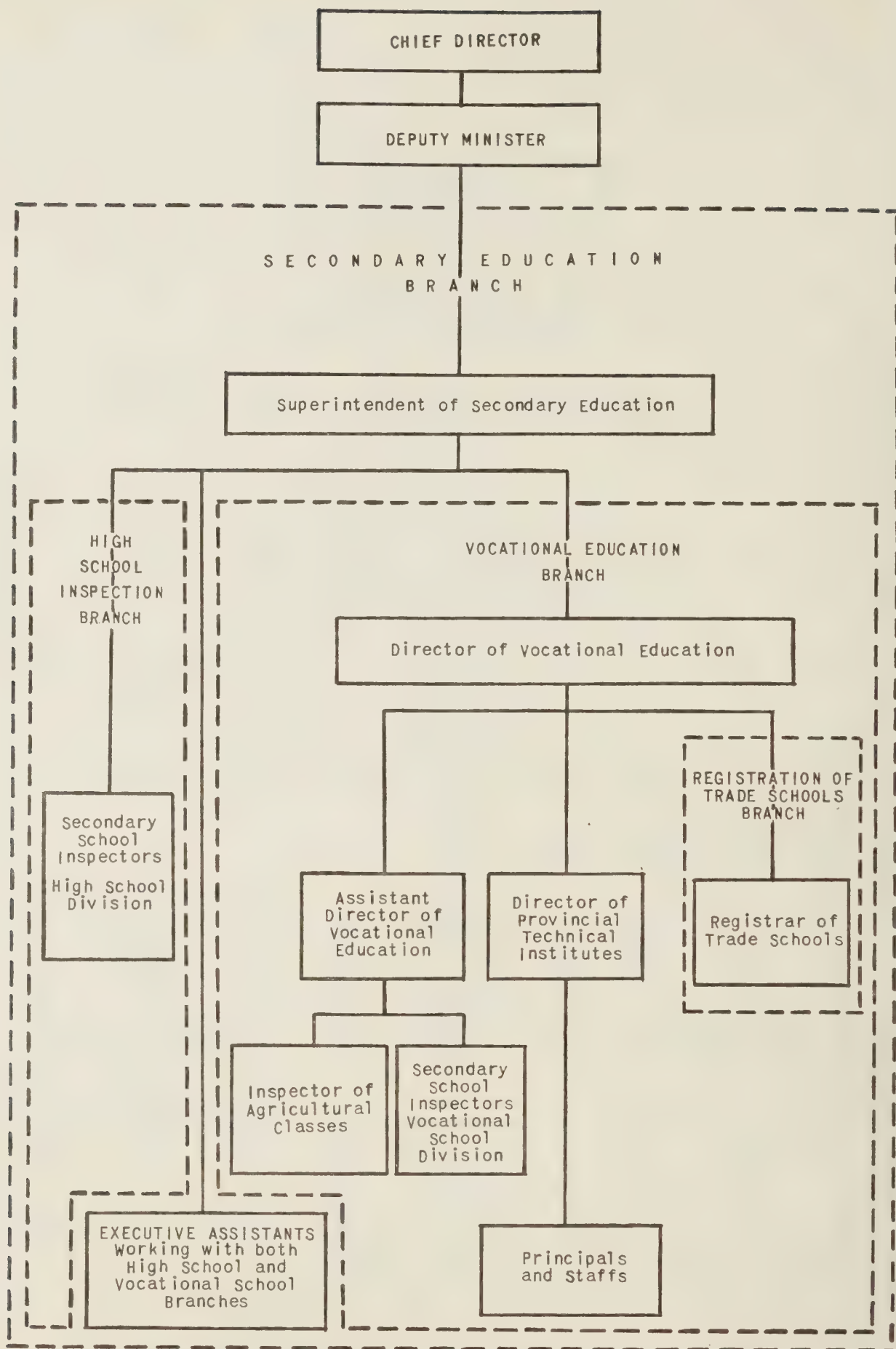


FIG. 4. PRESENT ORGANIZATION OF THE SECONDARY EDUCATION BRANCH OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

4. Legislative Library
5. Public Libraries Branch
6. Text-Books Branch
7. Departmental Examinations Branch
8. Professional Training Branch
9. Elementary Education Branch
10. Secondary Education Branch
11. Community Programmes Branch

"Secondary" Divisions

Subordinate to the Superintendent of Elementary Education:

1. Auxiliary Education Branch
2. Director of French Instruction
3. Correspondence Courses Branch

Subordinate to the Superintendent of Secondary Education:

4. High School Inspection Branch
5. Vocational Education Branch
6. Registration of Trade Schools Branch
(subordinate to the Director of
Vocational Education)

Subordinate to the Superintendents of Elementary and Secondary Education and of Professional Training:

7. Music Branch
8. Physical and Health Education Branch
9. Guidance Branch
10. Director of Art
11. Audio-Visual Aids Branch

Subordinate to the Superintendents of Elementary and Secondary Education:

12. School Attendance Branch

9. It is not necessary to detail the duties of the branches and divisions of the Department; it must suffice to point out some of the lines of responsibility. Some officials are directly responsible to the Chief Director in matters relating to instruction and to the Deputy Minister for administrative affairs; others are responsible to the Chief Director and Deputy Minister jointly; and others are directly responsible to the Deputy Minister and only through him to the Chief Director. Still other officials are responsible to the three Superintendents, although there is some indication that upon occasion they have direct access to the Deputy Minister and Chief Director. Various lines of subordinate responsibility are not shown on the chart, nor are lines of co-ordinate responsibility among the three Superintendents, who act, together with the Director of Vocational Education and the Registrar, as a Committee of Superintendents.

*Weaknesses in the Present Organization of the
Department of Education*

10. Our analysis of the organization of the Department of Education has revealed certain weaknesses and anomalies which we believe should be corrected. It is easy to understand how these may have arisen through adjustments and adaptations to meet new situations. Some lines of authority originated long ago as a result of an interrelationship between two or more persons holding senior positions. Other anomalies have arisen through the transfer of personnel from one branch to another when the subsidiary functions of an official were transferred with him to his new branch.

11. The establishment of the office of Chief Director with intermediate authority between the Minister and the Deputy Minister is anomalous. Normally, a Deputy Minister is the senior official of a department and the Minister's chief adviser and executive officer. At present, in the Department of Education these duties and responsibilities are a function of the Chief Director. Apparently, matters concerned with instruction are his responsibility and those relating to administration are a responsibility of the Deputy Minister—a situation which leaves some doubt as to the relative status of these positions.

12. Confusion in terminology appears in the designation of branches and other divisions of the Department. Not all "primary" divisions are on the same level, and the officials of some "secondary" divisions exercise greater authority than some of those in "primary" divisions. The term "Branch" seems to have no particular significance, since both "primary" and "secondary" divisions are so called, and since one branch may be composed of a number of branches and have other branches subordinate to it. The Elementary Education Branch, for example, is a division to whose head (the Superintendent of Elementary Education) the heads of three other divisions, two of which are branches, are responsible. The Secondary Education Branch, on the other hand, is composed of two "secondary" divisions: the High School Inspection Branch; and the Vocational Education Branch. The latter is headed by the Director of Vocational Education, whereas the former has no comparable official at its head. Further, the Registration of Trade Schools Branch is subordinate to the Vocational Education Branch which, in turn, is part of the Secondary Education Branch.

13. The following examples of weaknesses in the organization of the Department seem to stem from the association of functions with officials rather than with the branches to which they would normally be assigned. The Professional Training Branch is responsible for the operation of the Ontario School for the Blind and the Ontario School for the Deaf and for some supervision of the course of study for kindergartens. Normally, these provincial schools would be administered by the Auxiliary Education Branch, and kindergartens and their programmes by the Elementary Education Branch. Some years ago, apparently, an official, before his appoint-

ment as Superintendent of Professional Training, had a close association with the provincial schools for the blind and deaf and a particular interest in kindergartens. When he was promoted, responsibility for these functions was transferred with him and thus became a responsibility of the Professional Training Branch.

14. There appears to be lack of articulation in the provisions for the education of children in isolated parts of the province. The three chief means by which education is provided for such pupils are: correspondence courses; railway school cars; and payment by the province of tuition fees and in some cases transportation costs. It seems logical that one branch, preferably a special-education branch, should be assigned responsibility for the administration of education for such pupils. This, however, is not the case.¹

15. The Registrar and the Statistics Branch are both concerned with the gathering of data for reports and statistical analyses. Logically, one branch should be responsible for collecting and reporting all statistical data.

16. Although the determination and preparation of curricula and courses of study are functions of the Minister of Education, no one division of the Department has been charged with sole responsibility for this work. It is shared by the Editor of Text-books, the Assistant Superintendents of Elementary Education, the secondary school inspectors, the Director of Vocational Education, the directors of special subjects, and others. The work is ordinarily assigned to committees of departmental officials, the members of which assume it as an additional duty.

PROPOSED REORGANIZATION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION²

17. To implement our recommendations, a reorganization of the administration of education will be necessary, both locally and within the Department of Education. In the case of the latter, the foremost problem will be to establish an organization to permit the discharge of two distinctly different functions: for those regions in which the regional board of education plan of administration is not adopted, the Department will function in much the same way as at present—guiding, assisting, and supervising the activities of local education authorities and their employees; for those regions in which the regional board of education plan is adopted, the function of the Department will be to make certain that prescribed minimum standards are being met and, upon request, to advise and guide. Most senior officials will be concerned with both types of function. It is impossible to predict the percentage of schools which will operate under each system, and, undoubtedly, the proportions will continue to change. During the transition period local education authorities and ratepayers will

¹See Chapter XV.

²Figure 5 shows the proposed organization of the Department into divisions and branches, together with the senior officials thereof.

be required to make major decisions with reference to the local organization and administration of education. Consequently, it will be necessary for officials of the Department to be constantly in the field rendering such assistance as may be required.

18. From time to time in the past, the Government of the day has combined the Cabinet Portfolio of Education with that of some other department. Often-times this was not to the detriment of education, particularly when the Portfolio was held by the Premier of the day. Without in any way reflecting on the administration of the Department of Education by any Minister, past or present, there exists, especially in educational circles, a strong feeling, perhaps more particularly since the budget of the Department of Education is larger than that of any other department of government, that the importance of the Portfolio of Education warrants the exclusive attention of a Minister of the Crown. While fully recognizing that the determination of Cabinet organization is solely the right of the Premier, in view of the reorganization of the educational system which the implementation of this Report will entail, the Commission would respectfully draw attention to the great value to education generally of the Minister of Education being freed from other responsibilities so that he might devote his undivided attention and direction to the onerous duties of this department, which are of such vital importance to the future welfare of the province.

19. The decentralization of administration and supervision will not necessarily result in a reduction in the amount of work required of, or in the number of persons employed by, the Department of Education. On the contrary, additional staff may be needed during the transition period. In any event, relief should be afforded to the senior officials of the Department who, at present, as revealed by our investigations, bear too heavy a burden of work.

20. We believe that it would be advantageous to effect two major changes in the organization of the Department of Education: the substitution of the unitary system of responsibility for the present system; and the restoration of the office of Deputy Minister to the senior position in the Department. We therefore recommend

that the chief executive officer of the Department of Education be the Deputy Minister of Education, and that he be the Minister's chief adviser on educational matters.

21. Since in the new organization the Deputy Minister should be freed so far as possible from routine duties in order that he may devote his efforts to educational statesmanship, we recommend

that the Deputy Minister be assisted by an Associate Deputy Minister who, as executive assistant to the Deputy Minister, will be responsible for the co-ordination of the work of the senior officials of the Department of Education.

22. The Associate Deputy Minister should be the official to whom those responsible to the Deputy Minister would normally report. He should evaluate educational problems as reported, and present a summary of them to the Deputy Minister.

23. Lines of responsibility within the Department of Education should be clearly defined. This does not mean that the organization should be rigid. Rather, the personnel of the Department should be viewed as specialists working together for the educational welfare of the province. Articulation in organization can best be attained if departmental officials are responsible to the Deputy Minister and Associate Deputy Minister through senior officials holding superintendent's rank. This will make possible the grouping of "branches" into a number of "divisions", each headed by a senior official. We therefore recommend

that the Department of Education be organized into seven divisions, each headed by a superintendent or official of superintendent's rank, as follows:

- (i) *Division of Elementary Education, headed by a Superintendent of Elementary Education;*
- (ii) *Division of Secondary Education, headed by a Superintendent of Secondary Education;*
- (iii) *Division of Further Education, headed by a Superintendent of Further Education;*
- (iv) *Division of Professional Education, headed by a Superintendent of Professional Education;*
- (v) *Division of Curriculum, headed by a Superintendent of Curriculum;*
- (vi) *Division of Business Administration, headed by a Superintendent of Business Administration;*
- (vii) *Division of the Registrar, headed by a Registrar.*

24. Each of the seven senior officials named above should assume responsibility for the work of his division and report directly to the Associate Deputy Minister. In matters which are the concern of two or more senior officials, however, the proposed organization should make provision for co-ordinate responsibility. We therefore recommend

that the six Superintendents and the Registrar constitute a Committee of Superintendents, under the chairmanship of one of their number, for the following purposes:

- (i) *to devise ways and means of implementing policies determined by the Minister;*
- (ii) *to collate and integrate recommendations for submission to the Associate Deputy Minister;*
- (iii) *to resolve problems arising in one division which have involutions or implications for other divisions.*

Division of Elementary Education

25. The chief function of the Elementary Education Branch at the present time is the supervision of instruction in elementary schools through its provincially employed inspectors. Under the proposed reorganization, the function of the Division of Elementary Education with respect to Roman Catholic separate schools, elementary schools in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication with the permission of the Minister, and public schools operated by autonomous public school boards will be relatively unchanged. For those regions, however, which operate under regional boards of education, the Division of Elementary Education will be more concerned with giving advice and assistance, when requested, to the regional director and his staff in relation to the work of elementary schools.

26. Much of the work of the Superintendent of Elementary Education will be concerned with organization. As the departmental authority on elementary education, he will be the chief consultant on problems arising locally in any phase of elementary school education. His advice will also be sought by other superintendents and by the Deputy Minister in the formulation of policy. He should have on his staff assistant superintendents, a Supervisor of English Instruction and a Supervisor of French Instruction for elementary schools in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication with the permission of the Minister, and other supervisors as required. Together with the Superintendent of Secondary Education, he should superintend the work of the Director of Special Education.

Division of Secondary Education

27. The Superintendent of Secondary Education will be consultant and adviser to regional boards of education employing their own supervisory officials. For regional post-elementary school boards and regional boards of education which do not employ their own supervisory personnel, it will be his responsibility, through regional superintendents, to supervise instruction in secondary schools. He should be aided by assistant superintendents and such supervisors as are required. Together with the Superintendent of Elementary Education, he will superintend the work of the Director of Special Education.

Special Education Branch

28. Under the joint direction of the Superintendents of Elementary and Secondary Education, there should be a special Education Branch, headed by a Director, for the education of children classed as exceptional.¹ Part of the work of the Director will be to give advice and assistance to local education authorities operating programmes of special education. Another part of his work will be to administer and to supervise instruction in the

¹See Chapter XV.

Ontario School for the Blind and the Ontario School for the Deaf and in any other schools or classes which may be operated by the Department of Education for the education of exceptional children. He will also be responsible for devising and supervising arrangements for the elementary and secondary school education of children living in isolated parts of the province where ordinary school facilities are not available. In these duties he should be assisted by supervisors of special education, correspondence courses, and school cars.

Division of Further Education

29. The proposed reorganization of the educational system into elementary, secondary, and further education will make necessary the establishment of a Division of Further Education, headed by a Superintendent of Further Education. Since the degree of decentralization in junior colleges and technical institutes will not be extensive, supervision of instruction will be a departmental responsibility. The Superintendent of Further Education will also be responsible for the direction of community programmes of adult education and recreation. He will be adviser to the Deputy Minister on all problems relating to further education.

30. The Division of Further Education should have four main branches—Junior College Branch, Technical Institutes Branch, Vocational Education Branch, and Community Programmes Branch—each headed by an assistant superintendent. The assistant superintendents of the first three branches should be assisted by supervisors of special subjects; under the Assistant Superintendent of Community Programmes there should be a Supervisor of Adult Education and a Supervisor of Recreation.

Division of Professional Education

31. The Superintendent of Professional Education should be responsible for the general supervision and direction of matters relating to the pre-service and in-service¹ professional preparation of teachers for all schools under the jurisdiction of the Department of Education. In addition to the professional education of teaching personnel, the Division should be responsible for any special training required for the positions of regional directors and superintendents, assistant directors and superintendents, supervisors, business administrators, and other administrative personnel.

Division of Curriculum

32. To assist in the achievement of a unified educational programme extending from kindergarten through junior college, we have recommended that there be a Superintendent of Curriculum in the Department of Education, charged with responsibility for the development and preparation of curricula and courses of study and for the selection of suitable textbooks. Those regions operating under regional boards of education will, to a large

¹See Chapter XXII.

extent, be allowed to develop their own curricula and courses of study, subject to the approval of the Minister, whereas other local education authorities will follow more closely the prescribed provincial programme.

33. It is logical to attach the art, music, physical and health education, audio-visual aids, and guidance branches to the Division of Curriculum, since they serve all levels of the system. Moreover, these branches will be concerned largely with the preparation or revision of courses of study and with the improvement of instruction in special fields.

34. Provincial curricula and courses of study should be planned, drafted, and revised, under the general direction of the Superintendent of Curriculum, by Provincial and local curriculum committees, composed of officials of the Department of Education, local supervisors, and teachers. The Superintendent should be prepared, upon request, to give assistance to regional curriculum committees in those regions operating under regional boards of education.

Division of Business Administration

35. We believe there should be an official of the Department, with the rank of superintendent, responsible for business administration. His duties should include all matters connected with legislative grants, buildings, transportation, departmental personnel, and the correspondence, filing, and internal management of the Department. He should be directly responsible to the Associate Deputy Minister, and should be aided by assistant superintendents with supervision over branches such as accounts, grants, school and departmental plant, and transportation, and by a chief clerk in charge of filing and mail.

36. The Superintendent of Business Administration should be a member of the Committee of Superintendents. As such, he will be called upon to inform his colleagues of the financial and administrative implications of educational policies. He should have a thorough knowledge of, and experience in, business and educational administration. His assistant superintendents in charge of accounts, legislative grants, plant, and transportation should be aided by field representatives, who will assist local education authorities in setting up accounting systems, approve, on behalf of the Minister, local expenditures for legislative grant purposes, and give expert advice and assistance in other branches of business administration.

Division of the Registrar

37. The duties and responsibilities of the Division of the Registrar are concerned with the collection of statistics relating to education, the keeping of records, the preparation of reports, and examinations. In view of the importance of the duties assigned to this Division, we have recommended that the Registrar be ranked as a superintendent. He and the assistant registrars should have duties and responsibilities such as the following:

- (1) Collection and compilation of statistics relating to education.
- (2) Certification of directors, supervisors, inspectors, supervising teachers, principals, teachers, business administrators, and other personnel.
- (3) Maintenance of an adequate system of records concerning all types of educational personnel.
- (4) Registration of trade and private schools.
- (5) Preparation of the Minister's Report and other reports.
- (6) Registration of candidates for admission to a teacher-training institution and of students in summer school courses operated by the Department of Education.
- (7) Child accounting.
- (8) Teacher interchange.
- (9) Examinations.

Public Library Services¹

38. In addition to the foregoing seven divisions of the Department of Education, the Public Libraries Branch should be headed by a Director of Public Library Services, directly responsible to the Associate Deputy Minister.

SALARIES AND QUALIFICATIONS OF DEPARTMENTAL PERSONNEL

39. Officials of the Department of Education hold key positions in the educational system of the province. If the services of highly qualified persons are to be secured and retained, salaries must be commensurate with the duties and responsibilities of the positions. In our opinion, the present scale of salaries for senior officials in the Department of Education is not generous enough; and the inequity of the situation will become even more apparent with an increase in the number of locally employed administrators and supervisors under the reorganization we have recommended. To attract those in other fields of endeavour as well as in education, higher salaries should be paid, and the maximum salaries for senior positions in the provincial school system should be considered as minimum salaries for senior positions in the Department of Education. Although we do not wish to propose a specific salary schedule for departmental officials, even as an illustration, we recommend

that salaries of senior officials of the Department of Education be revised upward without regard to the general classification established for other civil servants, and be not in any event less than the salaries of those over whom in the course of duty they exercise supervision.

40. We further recommend

that a person appointed in the future to a senior position in the Department of Education be required to hold qualifications at least equal to those required for appointment to a comparable position in a region; and,

¹For a discussion of Public Libraries, see Chapter VI.

in addition, to have had successful experience in similar work, and to possess personal qualifications satisfactory to the Minister.

OFFICE ACCOMMODATION FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

41. For some time the Department of Education wing of the Parliament Buildings has been overcrowded owing to the additional staff made necessary by ever increasing responsibilities and duties. The situation has been alleviated to some extent through the acquisition, as an emergency measure, of renovated buildings at 206 Huron Street and 244 College Street. But to assure satisfactory working conditions and to provide for expansion, additional accommodation must be secured. We therefore recommend

that the present office accommodation of the Department of Education be increased in order that the offices of the Department located in Toronto may be housed in one compact unit.

Organization and Operation of the Divisions of the Department of Education

42. We do not propose to make recommendations with regard to the details of organization and operation of each of the divisions of the Department of Education. But our study has convinced us that changes are necessary. Before these can be effected, however, a comprehensive survey should be made of the duties and responsibilities of each departmental official and his staff in the light of the functions they are, or may be, required to perform. We therefore recommend

that a survey of the organization and method of operation of the Department of Education be authorized by the Minister of Education, to be conducted by a competent firm of management engineers or chartered accountants.

43. One item in particular which has been brought to our attention is the failure to make provision for the use of modern business machines in such branches of the Department as accounts and statistics. Under present conditions the task of compiling accurate and up-to-date statistics is almost impossible. The work of senior officials is made unnecessarily laborious owing to a general lack of modern office equipment. Modern business machines and methods are, in our opinion, essential to the efficient operation of the Department.

CENTRAL ADVISORY COUNCIL

44. In many briefs submitted to us some form of central advisory committee or council on education was proposed. Duties suggested for such a committee or council included: a continuing review of educational policy and the general educational programme; co-ordination of school programmes with the requirements of commerce, industry, agriculture, labour, and the professions; curriculum revision; the development of vocational education;

advising the Minister on problems relating to the use of the French language; the development and periodic revision of an agricultural curriculum; the development of a provincial library; co-ordinating vocational guidance and apprenticeship training; the development of adult education; and advising the Minister on legislation and regulations in regard to separate schools.

45. Proposals for the formation of a central advisory council warrant serious consideration, but difficulties immediately present themselves. It would presumably be necessary to delegate to such a council responsibility and power commensurate with the duties assigned; in fact, we may infer from the nature of the suggested duties that the responsibility for education would be vested partly, at least, in the council. Such a delegation of responsibility would be contrary to the principle that under our system of responsible government the Minister of Education, and hence the government, is responsible to the people for all legislation, regulations, and actions relating to education. Any radical departure from this fundamental practice, particularly in publicly supported education, is fraught with peril. It might mean, in this instance, control over certain aspects of education by an appointed commission—a change in practice which, in our opinion, would not be in the best interests of the province.

46. There would appear to be, however, a place for an advisory council appointed by, and subordinate to, the Minister and for independent, fact-finding committees appointed by him to investigate special problems. Nor would this arrangement contravene any principles of responsible government. There is a growing need in Ontario for a central advisory council, similar in nature and function to the Central Advisory Councils established in England and Wales, to advise the Minister of Education.

47. Such a type of council would not be new in Ontario. In the time of Dr. John Seath, who was appointed Superintendent of Education in 1906, an elected "Advisory Council of Education" was established, consisting of 20 members representative of universities, high schools, public schools, separate schools, inspectors, and school trustees. Election of members was to be held every three years. The Council was primarily intended to enable the Minister to obtain the advice of persons interested in education and to keep in touch with education in the province. It had no power to initiate discussion of educational problems, and could consider only such matters as were referred to it by the Minister. It was abolished in 1915.

48. Since the Advisory Council of Education was an elected body, this may have been the reason why the government objected to granting it the right to initiate educational policy. If the Minister had appointed the members of the Council, there could not have been such objection. Further, any advisory council, to function properly, should have power to examine any educational matter and advise the Minister upon it, although the latter need not feel compelled to accept the council's advice. The composition of such a council and other matters relating to it should be determined by the

Minister; but, in our opinion, it would clearly be advantageous for the term of office of its members to overlap and be of reasonable length.

49. We recommend

- (a) *that statutory provision be made for the establishment of a "Central Advisory Council on Education";*
- (b) *that the function of the Council be to advise the Minister of Education on such matters relating to education as it deems advisable and upon any questions relating to education referred to it by the Minister;*
- (c) *that the composition of the Council, number of members, term of office, and conditions of service be determined by the Minister;*
- (d) *that members be appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council for overlapping terms, a specified number of members to retire each year;*
- (e) *that retiring members be eligible for reappointment;*
- (f) *that, whether acted upon or not, reports of the Council be tabled in the Legislative Assembly at the first session held subsequent to their submission to the Minister.*

OTHER DEPARTMENTS OF GOVERNMENT

50. The expansion of services offered by local education authorities and by the central authority, as well as changing concepts of the scope of education, have meant that almost every department of government has become associated, in one way or another, with education in publicly supported schools. The educational powers, responsibilities, and activities of departments of government other than the Department of Education vary greatly. They range from statutory responsibilities such as the approval of local expenditure for educational purposes, through provision of auxiliary services such as health, to educational programmes on specific topics such as fire prevention or the conservation of wild life. They will now be very briefly discussed.

Department of Health

51. The Department of Health co-operates with the Department of Education in the following matters:

- (1) Advisory services, in consultation with the Department of Education, regarding certain school health services.
- (2) Review of sanitation reports following inspection of schools, and submission of comments to the Department of Education.
- (3) Review, tabulation, and compilation of annual service reports, and submission of a summary to the office of the Minister of Education.
- (4) Review of all medical reports by a medical board, and submission to the Department of Education of recommendations relative to the suitability, from the point of view of health, of applicants for admission to teacher-training institutions.

- (5) Arrangements for qualified members of the staff of the Department of Health to assist the Department of Education in staffing summer school courses dealing with matters of health.
- (6) Preparation of materials for use by teachers in the presentation of certain health subjects, such as venereal diseases.

52. The Ontario Department of Health directs the medical examination—including tests for tuberculosis—of applicants for entrance to provincial teacher-training schools. It also, where necessary, gives follow-up examinations and makes arrangements for specialist consultations. The Department also provides a consultant public health nursing service throughout the province through regional public health nursing supervisors. These nurses work in co-operation with school officials.

Department of Labour

53. The Apprenticeship Branch of the Department of Labour is charged with the administration of *The Apprenticeship Act*, certain sections of which deal with education in trade schools.

Department of Agriculture

54. *The Agricultural Associations Act* provides for the formation of Boards of Agriculture, Farmers' Institutes, and Women's Institutes, for the purpose of disseminating information regarding agriculture and the improvement of domestic life. *The Agricultural Societies Act* and *The Horticultural Societies Act* empower agricultural and horticultural societies to conduct activities within the field of adult education.

55. The Department of Agriculture co-operates with the Department of Education by providing training at a summer school course at the Ontario Agricultural College for teachers desirous of securing training and qualifications as teachers of agriculture.

56. The Agricultural School at Kemptville provides a two-year course in practical agriculture for young men and a two-year course in home economics for young women. The Dairy School for Eastern Ontario, located at the Kemptville Agricultural School, provides a three-months' course in dairy practice. The home economics division for girls offers a two-year course of special training; the programme includes foods and nutrition, clothing and applied arts, home nursing, and home furnishings.

57. The Department of Agriculture offers educational programmes in agriculture and home economics for boys and girls of school age. These are under the direction of the Agricultural Representatives Branch, Women's Institutes Branch, and Home Economics Service, of the Department, and include boys' and girls' clubs, girls' home-making and garden clubs, and horticultural projects.

58. Work in the field of adult education is conducted very largely through the Junior Farmer Association and the Junior Institutes. Other activities include the maintenance of leadership schools, leadership training

camp, county short courses, evening classes, Women's Institutes Courses, horticultural lectures, and extension work.

Department of Mines

59. In the field of adult education the Department of Mines conducts prospectors' classes. The Department furnishes a series of lectures, including laboratory work, illustrating the common sorts of rocks and minerals, with special attention to those of commercial interest. These classes are held each year and extend from three days to a week at each centre. The Department also co-operates with the Department of Education in the operation of the Provincial Institute of Mining at Haileybury and the Lakehead Technical Institute.

Department of Lands and Forests

60. A major part of the work of the Information and Education Branch of the Department of Lands and Forests is concerned with adult education. It includes promoting a knowledge of the value of the renewable natural resources of the province and of the need for their protection and wise use.

61. An educational programme in publicly supported schools, arranged in co-operation with the Department of Education through school inspectors and principals, is provided through lectures by members of staff of the Department of Lands and Forests. Essay and art competitions of the Department have the approval of the Department of Education. Literature for use in schools is frequently supplied to the Department of Education for general distribution, and a copy of the magazine "Sylva" is regularly mailed to high, collegiate, and other secondary schools for use in school libraries.

Department of Municipal Affairs

62. Although local municipal authorities are granted a number of powers in relation to education through Acts administered by the Department of Municipal Affairs, the Department itself has very little to do with education, except in the case of a municipality defaulting on its debt payments. In such a case the Department of Municipal Affairs has authority to control expenditures for any municipal purpose, including education. The Department of Municipal Affairs also exercises authority in relation to education in the case of improvement districts, whose trustees, appointed by the Minister of Municipal Affairs, function as a local school board.

INTER-DEPARTMENTAL COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION

63. To recommend the re-allocation of educational powers and responsibilities among departments of government is not within our terms of reference. We are convinced, however, that there should be some means of co-ordinating and articulating those activities of the various departments of government which relate to education in publicly supported schools. We therefore recommend

- (a) *that an "Inter-departmental Committee on Education" be established, and that it be composed of at least one senior official of each department of government concerned with publicly supported education;*
- (b) *that the Committee be empowered and required to study the existing division among the departments of powers and duties relating to education and the relevant departmental activities conducted by them, and to make recommendations as to any re-allocation of these found necessary to secure better co-ordination of those activities which affect publicly supported education;*
- (c) *that the Committee be constituted as a standing committee, with functions as follows:*
 - (i) *to discuss ways and means of co-ordinating activities conducted by two or more departments in the field of publicly supported education;*
 - (ii) *to discuss changes in legislation proposed by another department which may affect the activities of the Department of Education;*
 - (iii) *upon request, to advise the Legislative Committee on Education with reference to private Bills and Bills submitted by a department of government, relating to publicly supported education;*
 - (iv) *to discuss matters relating to education which concern the Department of Education and one or more other departments.*

ACTS AND REGULATIONS RESPECTING EDUCATION

64. There are in Ontario at least 18 different Acts relating to public education. Most of these are interrelated, and nearly all have been frequently amended. Despite their interrelated nature, they have not always been correlated. It is doubtful if the school laws of the province have ever been comprehensively and generally revised. Persons who have occasion to refer to school laws find them almost incomprehensible owing to the bulk of school legislation now in force, to the frequent amendments which are necessary, to the interrelated nature of the Acts, to their relation to municipal legislation, and to the system of "incorporation by reference" followed in many cases. We therefore recommend

- (a) *that all statutory provisions relating to education in Ontario be consolidated into one Education Act;*
- (b) *that the present statutes relating to education be thereupon repealed.*

65. The reorganization of the educational system will involve comprehensive changes in the traditional educational structure of this province. Unnecessary disruption can be avoided if these are made in progressive stages. We recommend

- (a) *that the statutory provisions for the reorganization of the educational system be made operative immediately;*
- (b) *that the necessary administrative machinery be set up and put into effect.*

In some areas major adjustments may be made immediately; in others, where circumstances do not permit immediate action, boards should be allowed only the shortest possible period in which to comply fully with all requirements of the Act. This period of transition will allow time for negotiations between parties affected regarding transfer of property (attention being given to the portion of the cost that has been paid through legislative grants) and other matters of a similar nature. It will facilitate the orderly transfer of pupils from the senior grades of elementary schools to the new secondary schools and the introduction of new courses of study. We recommend

- (a) *that, where immediate reorganization is impracticable, the local education authority so report to the Minister of Education, who should thereupon request investigation and report by the Central Advisory Council as to the date at which such reorganization might be best effected;*
- (b) *that in no case should the duration of the period of transition exceed a reasonable period of time, which, in our opinion, might be fixed at three years.*

CHAPTER XV

EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN¹

1. Today, approximately 17,000 pupils receive special educational treatment in Ontario. This is equivalent to the entire enrolment in the public elementary schools of the cities of Brantford, Fort William, Kingston, Kitchener, Oshawa, and Peterborough. There are nearly 600 full-time teachers and approximately 1,000 part-time teachers engaged in day school teaching in special classes and units; and almost 100 others are concerned with special education in residential schools, through correspondence courses, and through other special services.

2. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, residential schools and hospitals had been established in many countries for the education of the deaf, the blind, and the mentally sick. Before the middle of the nineteenth century, provision was made for recording at each decennial census the number of persons who were deaf or blind. The twentieth century has seen such developments as day schools for the physically and mentally handicapped, the utilization of educational tests and measurements, and the adoption of clinical procedures.

3. There has been an increasing recognition in the present century of the fact that a very large number of children vary from the normal in particular respects. The educational needs of these exceptional children are now being partly met under ordinary schoolroom conditions through the provision of flexible grading and promotion, the continuance of which we have recommended. In essence, these constitute measures which are taken in the schools of today to make provision for individual differences. The usual programmes of study, however, despite adaptations for individuals and groups, are intended for those who are close to the average in capacity and attainment. For those further removed from the average, usually referred to as atypical, a more specialized treatment is required than can be provided in the average classroom.

4. From the viewpoint of education, a markedly atypical child is one who, by reason of physical, mental, or social deviation from the average, is unable to make reasonably satisfactory progress in the work of the regular

¹For our discussion of provisions to be made for gifted children see Chapters IV and V.

grades of the school. Included are not only those who deviate mentally or physically, but also those who show deviations in attitudes and behaviour, and those who in a social sense are atypical in that for geographic or economic reasons they are unable to take advantage of educational opportunities readily available to the average pupil. Gifted children are also generally included, although they are able to make better-than-average progress in the work of the regular grades of the school. Markedly atypical children have been classified and described as follows:

(1) *Physically Atypical*

Blind: A child whose visual acuity is ordinarily 20/200 or less according to tests made with a Snellen Symbol E Chart, or one afflicted with progressive loss of vision.

Partially Sighted: Any child whose vision is more than 20/200 and less than 20/70 in the better eye after correction has been made; any child afflicted with progressive myopia; and any child requiring great care to conserve his remaining vision.

Deaf: Any child whose hearing even when supplemented by a hearing aid is useless for the ordinary purposes of schooling.

Hard-of-hearing: Any child who has more than a mild handicap in hearing but is not totally deaf to speech sounds; any child with impaired hearing who misinterprets speech sounds; any child who requires help by means of lip-reading or hearing aids, or both, to understand and imitate speech sounds; and, in general, any child who has a hearing loss of 25 to 50 per cent.

Speech Defective: Any child whose speech is not easily audible and intelligible to the listener; whose speech is vocally and visibly unpleasant or laboured in production; or whose speech development is below the level appropriate to his age, sex, and physical development.

Crippled: Any child who has a defect which causes a deformity or an interference with the normal function of the bones, muscles, or joints to such a degree that he is unable to attend school, or to make progress in school, without special consideration in the matters of transportation, equipment, and instruction.

Home-bound: Any child whose physical condition is such that he is confined temporarily or permanently to his home by disabilities arising out of accident or disease.

Hospitalized: Any child who is confined to a hospital for a lengthy period.

Physiologically Maladjusted: Any child whose vitality is lowered by reason of deprivation or disease.

(2) *Mentally Atypical*

Gifted: A child who in intelligence is in the topmost 2 per cent of the child population.

Slow Learning: A child of limited mental capacity who drifts along in

school with considerable failure and retardation, and who may have temperamental outbreaks. Probably one-third of this group deviate so much that special help is needed.

Defaulting: A child of normal or superior abilities whose achievement in school is far below the level of his ability in one or more subjects. This is a remediable condition.

Subnormal: A child whose mental development at age 16 will be at least equal to that of a normal 8-year-old, and not more than that of an average 12-year-old, child.

Feeble-minded: A child whose mental development at age 16 will be less than that of a normal 8-year-old child.

(3) *Attitudinally Atypical*

Delinquent: Stealing, stubbornness, waywardness, truancy, trespassing, fighting, sex offences, etc.

Neurotic: Anxieties, hysteria, neurasthenia, withdrawal tendencies, fetishism, sadism, Narcissism, the Oedipus complex, tantrums, etc.

Personality Disorders: Lying, withdrawing, showing off, day-dreaming, etc.

(4) *Socially Atypical*

Confined: The delinquent in the reform school or parental home; the orphan in a children's shelter or parental home.

Far-away: Any child who resides where a school cannot be reached by ordinary transportation facilities (children of trappers, guides, section men, etc.).

Neglected: Any child whose attendance or progress suffers as a result of parental neglect.

5. In common with states in the United States of America and European countries, Ontario in the nineteenth century made provision in residential institutions for the exceptional or markedly atypical child. In 1873, little more than 20 years after Ryerson reorganized the educational system, a school for the deaf and a school for the blind were founded. The Ontario School for the Deaf was established at Belleville. Deaf pupils came to it to learn the manual signs and finger-spelling through which ideas were communicated and education imparted. This scheme of instruction followed that initiated at Hartford in 1817. The oral method, followed by the great European teachers from the beginning of the fifteenth century, was ignored in the Belleville school until about 1920, after which it was gradually adopted. The school was located on a farm which provided vegetables and dairy products. It gradually developed vocational training facilities in wood-working, laundering, baking, cooking, sewing, printing, and shoe repairing. Today vocational guidance for the deaf is also provided in the school.

6. The Ontario School for the Blind, established at Brantford, gave instruction in Braille reading and writing. Typing, sewing, music, and piano tuning are now taught as vocational training.

7. Other training institutions were built and operated for the care of delinquent, feeble-minded, and epileptic children. The usual pattern was to locate the building on a farm where vegetables and dairy products could be produced. The order in which these institutions were first established was as follows: training institution for delinquent girls (Mercer), 1880; training institution for delinquent boys (Victoria Industrial School), 1887; training institution for feeble-minded children (Orillia), 1888; training institution for epileptic children (Woodstock), 1905. The Victoria Industrial School was closed in 1934, its place being taken by the Bowmanville School for Boys, founded in 1925. The Orillia School gives training and employment in the following shops which supply the institution's needs: shoe making and repairing; laundry; sewing (with power machines); bakery; and cooking. In addition, girls are trained in housekeeping and boys in farm work. In the Bowmanville School and its annexes, pre-vocational training and regular school work are carried on.

8. In the twentieth century, day-school training of the physically, mentally, and socially handicapped became the accepted pattern for the extension of special educational facilities to other types of markedly atypical children. The chronological order of the development of day classes and related services in Ontario is as follows:

(1) *Open Air Classes for Children with Tuberculosis*

The first school of this kind was opened in 1910 in a building on Toronto Island operated by the Hospital for Sick Children.

(2) *Special Classes for Mentally Handicapped Children*

In 1911 the Toronto Board of Education provided some classes for mentally handicapped children, under *An Act Respecting Special Classes* passed in the same year. This Act permitted elementary school authorities in any city to make a register of all children who were backward or abnormally slow in learning, or who from physical or mental causes required special training and education. It also made provision for the establishment of special classes, admission of candidates, courses of study, inspection, and the apportionment of grants.

(3) *Forest Schools for Sickly Children*

The Toronto Board of Education in 1913 opened the High Park Forest School and the Victoria Park Forest School for malnourished children as day schools in operation from May to October. The programme of food and rest was under the jurisdiction of the Toronto Board of Health and the teaching staff was provided by the Board of Education, following the same plan as the earlier school organized under the Hospital for Sick Children. After the First World War, "open-window" type classes were established in Wilkinson and Orde Street Schools.

(4) *The Auxiliary Classes Act, 1914*

This Act extended the principle of *The Special Classes Act* of 1911 by defining requirements for admission to special classes, by providing

for the erection of residential schools, by setting up auxiliary-classes boards to pass on admissibility, and by providing for medical inspection and treatment. It was planned to organize a special room for those pupils whose mental and physical handicaps retarded the progress of average and superior pupils. In the special class, pupils were to receive sense training and handwork along with academic work within their mental powers. These special classes were called training classes because of the programme of handwork, rhythemics, and sense training. Pupils "not being persons whose mental capacity is incapable of development beyond that of a child of normal mentality at eight years of age"¹ were admitted to them. This Act and the regulations under it required: that teachers be trained in teaching and testing techniques; that the classroom be specially equipped with teaching materials; that the number of pupils be not in excess of 16; and that the curriculum be adapted to the child. As experience grew, the name "Training Class"² was applied to classes for children age 12 and under, and the term "Promotion Class" was used when the pupils were age 13 and over. Teachers found that children taught by individual and direct methods and proceeding at their individual rates made progress beyond expectation in both academic and craft work. The practice grew, in the smaller schools, of admitting pupils who were defaulting in school work and were two or more years retarded in one or more subjects; it was later extended to include adjustment service for pupils who were performing below their levels of ability. The latter not only made it possible to readjust pupils to work in the regular grades, but also helped to combat the stigma attached to classes where the pupils showed only meagre academic achievement. Eventually a new nomenclature was adopted; the "Training Class" was re-named the "Opportunity Class" and the "Promotion Class" became the "Handicraft Class".

The Auxiliary Classes Act, 1914, provided that no child could be admitted to a special class without an examination. The regulations under the Act required the Inspector of Auxiliary Classes to conduct a survey when requested by a school board. This survey included the administration of intelligence tests to the mentally handicapped, the collection of medical evidence in the case of the physically handicapped, the collection of other data, and the preparation of a report containing recommendations for consideration by the local board.

9. The chronological order of development of special classes and schools subsequent to the passing of *The Auxiliary Classes Act*, 1914, is as follows:

¹*The Auxiliary Classes Act*, R.S.O. 1937, Chapter 358, Toronto: King's Printer, 1941, Sec. 2.

²H. E. Amoss and L. H. DeLaporte, *Training Handicapped Children*, Toronto: Ryerson, 1933, p. 13.

(1) *Sight-saving Classes*

In these classes, first organized in 1921, books printed in large type are used to conserve sight. The room is specially lighted, glare is eliminated, and written work is done on "sight-saving" paper in large handwriting. The regular school subjects are taken, but reading periods are adjusted in length according to the orders of the child's oculist. Strain on the child's eyes is reduced in every possible way, and he is taught to conserve his vision by resting his eyes and by reading only where the light is adequate.

(2) *Home-instruction Classes for Stay-at-homes*

Home-bound pupils receive instruction in their own homes for at least two periods weekly, usually by teachers employed by the local school board.

(3) *Speech-correction and Lip-reading Classes*

An itinerant speech therapist is sometimes employed to visit a number of schools and instruct pupils for at least two periods each week. The work is a co-operative effort of the speech therapist and the classroom teacher. Children who lisp, substitute, or stutter receive training in speech correction. Assistance is also given in cases of cleft palate, delayed speech, and, where the child is of average intelligence, moderate deafness.

(4) *Vocational Schools for Senior Mentally Handicapped Boys and Girls*

In 1923 special industrial schools were established at the secondary school level to provide vocational training for mentally handicapped children who might later secure positions in industry. In these schools half the school day was devoted to vocational training in the following subjects: for boys—woodwork, metalwork, tailoring, auto repair, printing, art, electrical work; and for girls—power sewing, art, cooking, housework, baby care, and home nursing.

(5) *Institutional Classes in Children's Shelters and Parental Homes*

Children who are separated from their parents may be placed for varying periods in children's shelters or parental homes, and provision is made for the continuance of their education.

(6) *Hospital and Sanatorium Classes*

Since 1923, educational facilities have been provided for children who are convalescing for long periods in hospitals and sanatoria. This service is now called educational therapy.

(7) *Oral Day Classes for Deaf and Hard-of-hearing Children*

The regular school programme is conducted in these classes with allowance for language disabilities which result from deafness. Speech-reading (lip-reading) and speech-production exercises are given daily. Group hearing aids are in use, and from one-third to one-half the pupils find them beneficial in improving pitch, tone, and enunciation. Since 1947 all classes for the deaf and hard-of-hearing have been

equipped with group hearing aids. A few individual children residing in school areas where there is no hard-of-hearing class have been provided with hearing aids.

(8) *Training Institutions for Delinquent Boys and Girls*

The Bowmanville School for Boys was established as a centre to which delinquent boys could be sent without a court order. Following the closing of the Victoria Industrial School, it became a place of confinement for those sent by court order. The school operates in the following ways: as a classification centre and school from which boys are sent to branches or placed in foster homes; as a training school for younger boys (Galt Branch); and as a vocational training centre for older boys (Brampton Branch). A training institution for delinquent girls was opened at Galt in 1933; this was discontinued later, and a similar training institution established in Cobourg.

(9) *Orthopaedic Classes for Crippled Children*

Pupils afflicted with cerebral palsy, poliomyelitis, heart conditions, and other crippling diseases, and whose condition is approximately static, are admitted to an orthopaedic class or school. The school provides transportation, meals, facilities for rest and relaxation, and occupational and physical therapy under medical supervision, in addition to academic training.

(10) *Correspondence Courses for Far-away Children*

Children whose place of residence is remote from school and children for whom home instruction by a teacher cannot be provided are educated through correspondence courses in grades I to XII inclusive.

(11) *School Cars for Far-away Children*

To children living within reach of a railroad but for whom no school is accessible, education is made available through school cars. Children come to the school car to receive direct instruction for a number of days, and are given sufficient assignments to occupy their time until the car returns.

(12) *Advancement Classes for Gifted Children*

In classes for gifted children in grades V, VI, VII, and VIII, it is usual to spend half of the day on the regular work of the grade and to enrich the school programme by devoting the remainder of the time to auditorium exercises, enterprises, typing, a second language, practical work, etc.

(13) *Opportunity, Sight-saving, Home-instruction, Speech-correction, and Transportation Units in Small Schools*

Auxiliary "units", introduced in 1930, are designed to provide special education where the number of pupils is insufficient for the organization of a special class. The *opportunity unit* provides a plan for the special education of a backward or retarded pupil in a small school. Following a study of the situation, an "advisement" is prepared by

the Auxiliary Education Branch of the Department of Education; detailed suggestions are made to the classroom teacher; and suitable books and other learning materials, as well as methods of teaching, are suggested. The *sight-saving unit* provides special classroom supplies (magnatyped books and sight-saving materials) for a child with defective eyesight. The *home-instruction unit* provides 150 minutes of instruction weekly by a teacher who goes to the child's home. *Speech-correction units* are organized for pupils who have speech defects, and the Auxiliary Education Branch prepares an advisement for the classroom teacher. An *orthopaedic or transportation unit* may be organized for a pupil who is educable but, because of disability as certified by a medical authority, is unable to get to and from school.

(14) *Surveys of Physically and Mentally Handicapped Children in Small Schools*

The survey service, previously available only to urban school boards, was extended in 1933 to rural areas. Children retarded on the basis of age and grade, at least one and one-half years in grades I-IV, or two or more years in grades V-VII, inclusive, are given intelligence and achievement tests, upon request, by an inspector from the Auxiliary Education Branch and the resident inspector. Children suffering from physical handicaps, such as crippling, or defective vision, hearing, or speech, are also interviewed. At the conclusion of the survey, the auxiliary class inspector prepares an advisement for each pupil and transmits it to the resident inspector.

(15) *Classes for Dull-Normal Pupils (Handicraft Schools)*

The handicraft school at the elementary school level was established in 1934, on a plan similar to that formerly in operation in the special industrial schools. The school time is divided equally between academic and vocational studies. This provides a large fraction of the slow learning group with an opportunity for adjustment and for entrance to the pre-vocational classes at age 16 or, under special conditions, for entrance to academic-vocational classes in a secondary school.

(16) *Classes for Adolescents and Adults in Sanatoria*

In 1939 educational therapy was extended to adult patients in sanatoria. Bedside teaching is necessary in 95 per cent of cases. The teacher needs to be versatile, with a knowledge of elementary and secondary school courses as well as correspondence courses given by trade schools, commercial schools, and universities.

(17) *Habilitation Units for Cripples*

These were established in 1940 to provide trade training for adolescents, in order to assist them to become completely or partially self-supporting. They are often organized on a co-operative plan sup-

ported by the Department of Education, a service club, and the parents.

(18) *Remedial Reading Classes*

Pupils with average or even superior academic abilities often fail to read at a level commensurate with their mental ability. When this retardation results in non-promotion, it has been found advisable to institute remedial teaching techniques under a teacher with wide experience and special training. The pupils selected for remedial teaching are enrolled in a regular grade class but attend a remedial reading class for two to five periods each week.

(19) *Secondary School Units for Cripples*

In 1942 the Department of Education assumed the cost of educating cripples who were unable to attend secondary school. The minimum length of time for instruction was set at four hours weekly. The service is similar to that given in a home-instruction unit at the elementary school level.

(20) *Education of Deaf-Blind Pupils*

In the case of these pupils, arrangements are made by the Department of Education for a competent teacher to give at least one hour's instruction daily. The education of such pupils is extremely difficult: it is necessary to establish a means of receiving messages and later a method of inter-communication; and there is no method of measuring abilities and intelligence other than through study over a protracted period.

(21) *Summer School Courses for Teachers*

Since 1923, summer courses have been regularly given for the training of special class teachers. It is now possible to secure specially trained instructors for Ontario schools in the following special branches of auxiliary education:

Mental Retardation	Orthopaedic
Speech Correction	Sanatorium
Lip Reading	Remedial Reading
Sight Saving	Visiting Teacher
Hospital	Measurement of Intelligence and
Home Instruction	Achievement

(22) *The Educational Clinic*

For years, members of the staff of the auxiliary education summer courses have been called upon to advise parents and teachers on methods of instructing handicapped children. All types of handicapped children have been brought long distances, in the hope that they might receive help. Since 1949 a remedial class has been operated in conjunction with the summer course. Advice is given to parents, and advisements are mailed to the local school authorities.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION IN ONTARIO TODAY

10. In Ontario the social and physical welfare of the pupil is a concern of the provincial Department of Public Welfare, or, in some cases, of the provincial Department of Reform Institutions; his health, except in the case of a few municipalities, is a responsibility of the provincial Department of Health. These three departments work in co-operation with the Department of Education. To ensure co-ordination of effort when two or more authorities act in conjunction, it is desirable to provide for the distribution of responsibility. A formula for this was laid down in 1933 in the authorized manual for special education, and has brought about co-operative action among the provincial authorities concerned. The following quotation illustrates the relative responsibility with respect to specific types of special education assigned by it to each of the Departments:

The gradient of administrative responsibility as existing between the Department of Education and the Departments of Public Health and of Public Welfare may be specifically represented by the following series of typical classes:

1. Classes of minor educational responsibility.
 - Hospital Classes.
 - Sanatorium Classes.
 - Preventorium Classes.
 - Institutional Classes (for mentally defective, delinquent, and unprotected children).
2. Classes of dual adjustable responsibility.
 - Forest School Classes.
 - Open Air Classes.
 - Visiting Teacher Classes.
 - Orthopaedic Classes.
3. Classes of major educational responsibility.
 - Sight-saving Classes.
 - Oral Classes.
 - Hard-of-hearing Classes.
 - Speech-correction Classes.
 - Institutional Classes (for blind and deaf children).¹

11. The school operated in conjunction with the Ontario Hospital at Orillia accommodates pupils classed as feeble-minded, and a few neglected children of somewhat higher intelligence who previously were a menace both to themselves and to the communities in which they lived. For several reasons the conduct of the school is a responsibility of the Department of Health: the problem presented is more that of shelter and treatment than of education; admission to and discharge from the hospital involve legal procedures not unlike those relating to mental hospitals; and the stay of a particular individual may be extended over prolonged periods, in many instances for life. The Department of Health provides its own teachers.

12. Training schools for delinquent boys and girls have been placed under the direction of the Department of Reform Institutions because their

¹H. E. Amoss and L. H. DeLaPorte, *Training Handicapped Children*, pp. 187-188.

chief purpose is to effect the reformation of their charges and to protect society during the period of that reformation, and also because children are committed to these schools by order of the court and are released by way of legally arranged placements or otherwise under legal supervision. The training schools provide their own teachers, who usually hold teaching certificates valid in Ontario, and the classes are inspected by the local elementary school inspectors of the Department of Education.

13. Supervision of the Ontario School for the Deaf and the Ontario School for the Blind is exercised by the Superintendent of Professional Training, Department of Education.

14. Supervision of correspondence courses and school cars is exercised by the Superintendent of Elementary Education, through the Supervisor of Correspondence Courses and the Provincial Attendance Officer and Supervisor of Railway School Cars. The pupils enrolled are atypical only in that the location of their homes is in areas remote from established schools. The migration of parents and the establishment of new schools frequently bring such pupils within the ordinary educational panel.

15. Supervision of special classes established under *The Auxiliary Classes Act* is exercised, under the Superintendent of Elementary Education, by an Inspector of Auxiliary Classes, an Assistant Inspector of Auxiliary Classes, and, since 1948, a public school inspector attached to the Auxiliary Education Branch. The duties of the officials of the branch comprise: inspecting classes established under the Act; making surveys in urban and rural areas; conducting summer schools for the training of teachers of auxiliary classes; apportioning grants to auxiliary classes; co-operating with local boards of school trustees to establish and conduct special classes; and investigating special cases.

16. In several of the larger urban centres, for example in Hamilton, Ottawa, and Toronto, school boards have established a psychological service. The officials concerned undertake school surveys and clinical investigations and frequently exercise a certain amount of supervision over the classes. This is done in conjunction with the school health officer, where such an official is appointed by the board, or in conjunction with the medical health officer or his representative, and with or without the assistance of the special class teachers within the area.

17. Certain societies, some in receipt of assistance from the Department of Education and some acting independently of the Department, co-operate financially and otherwise for the welfare of exceptional children. The Canadian National Institute for the Blind receives grants from the Department; it places in industry graduates from the Ontario School for the Blind and from sight-saving classes and, if deemed expedient, provides them with special vocational training in the form of specific and detailed instruction in the phases of industry best suited to their abilities and inclinations. The National Society of the Deaf and the Hard of Hearing also receives

assistance from the Department; it undertakes the responsibility of placing in industry graduates from the Ontario School for the Deaf and from oral and hard-of-hearing day classes. It also renders consultant otological services. The Ontario Society for Crippled Children provides similar service with respect to crippled children. The Children's Aid Societies render assistance to the Auxiliary Education Branch by alleviating the home conditions of certain pupils in special classes, by promoting regularity of attendance, and by making arrangements, where necessary, to enable children of indigent parents to attend special schools. Various churches and service clubs also give valuable assistance.

Discovery and Admission of Pupils

18. The names of blind children and deaf children are reported to the Department of Education or to the superintendent of the provincial school concerned by parents, physicians, teachers, attendance officers, school medical officers, nurses, child welfare agencies, and others. Cases are occasionally discovered during auxiliary class or health unit surveys. Some children are ineligible for admission to a provincial school because of low intelligence; others who are eligible are not enrolled because of parental neglect or through a disinclination on the part of parents to be separated from their handicapped children. On receipt of a report, the child is afforded a mental examination by an official of the institution, by a school inspector, or by an auxiliary class teacher. If found to be capable of making progress in the school, to be free from communicable disease, and able to attend to his needs in residence, he is admitted. If rejected as a result of the findings of the first examination, he is afforded an opportunity for re-examination. Doubtful cases are usually given trial placement in the school. Pronounced sight-saving or hard-of-hearing cases living in areas in which there are no corresponding special day classes may be admitted.

19. Admission to the Ontario Hospital School, Orillia, the Ontario Hospital for epileptics at Woodstock, the Sick Children's Hospital, Toronto, as well as other hospitals and sanatoria, is by authority of the officials of the institution concerned in conjunction with the Department of Health; admission to shelters, orphanages, etc. is by authority of officials of the institution in conjunction with the Department of Public Welfare. Admission to training schools for delinquents is a matter of legal procedure. Where school boards establish classes in any of the institutions operated under the Department of Health, attendance of patients at the classes is upon the advice of the superintendent of the institution concerned.

20. In the case of forest-school, open-air, sight-saving, deaf, hard-of-hearing, or crippled children's classes, operated by city boards of school trustees, admission is upon the recommendation of the medical officer of health, based on reports of his representatives or assistants, but final decision rests with the school board and its officials because other factors, such as educability and transportation, must be taken into consideration.

21. In the initial establishment of classes for the mentally handicapped or maladjusted, the board of school trustees of a village, town, or city makes official request for a survey, which the Inspector of Auxiliary Classes is directed to undertake. Through the principals of the schools, teachers are asked to furnish information in co-operation with the school nurse. They are asked to report on all pupils who are 18 months or more over age for the grade in which enrolled, on those seriously retarded in reading, arithmetic, or spelling, on the emotionally maladjusted, the speech-bound, those suspected of vision or of hearing defects, and those who are home-bound. The Inspector or Assistant Inspector of Auxiliary Classes examines those reported. The school board is then, through the Deputy Minister, furnished with a report of the survey; advised concerning the establishment of special classes or, where but few pupils are involved, of special units; and given information concerning the equipment required and special grants available. Subsequent action by the board is optional.

22. In rural areas, the school inspector or the board of school trustees of a larger administrative unit may ask for a survey, which is conducted in much the same fashion as in an urban municipality. The several boards and the local inspector are furnished with reports advising the establishment of special units, and are given information concerning special equipment and grants available. The teacher of each school and the local inspector are furnished with advisements concerning the method of conducting the units whose establishment has been recommended to the board. These advisements usually cover the probable period required for readjustment, often amounting to several years.

SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

23. Children who are temporarily home-bound and those who have been placed in hospital, open-air, or forest-school classes pursue the regular programme of study in its essential features. The purpose of the classes is to enable the child to keep up with his studies during temporary absence from school. In sanatoria classes for adults, an attempt is made, in the case of illiterates, to pick up the broken ends of a faulty education; in the case of literates, training may be continued along academic lines through the secondary school panel, or may take the form of vocational education in which the patient is trained in sedentary craft work to enable him, following his discharge from hospital, to make a living in one of the less strenuous occupations.

24. Pupils in school car classes or in correspondence classes pursue the regular programme of studies. A school car provides accommodation for a classroom and a residence for the teacher. It is taken to each locality in its itinerary approximately one week of each month during the school year. The teacher employs the usual methods of instruction, but has to be gifted in the art of providing pupils with profitable home-work for the three-week interval before the next class. In correspondence courses, sets of questions

and exercises covering a year's work are prepared, and the pupil's work is supervised at the Department. Pupils are furnished with required textbooks, and exercises are forwarded and returned at regular intervals.

25. In five large urban municipalities, crippled children are transported to school and taught in classes specially organized for them. In smaller areas, they may be transported to school if they are able to look after their needs, but they are usually taught by visiting teachers, as are the permanently home-bound. The regular programme of studies is followed, with necessary modification to allow for the physical limitations of the children. A considerable amount of occupational work is undertaken, partly to enable the pupils to gain muscular co-ordination, and partly to fit them to engage in gainful employment.

26. Pupils in the Ontario School for the Blind and those in sight-saving classes follow the regular programmes of study; the latter follow the elementary school programme, and the former take the work of the elementary and first four grades of the secondary school programme. Graduates are usually advised to attend technical school and to specialize in crafts requiring a minimum of vision. Pupils in the Ontario School for the Blind are taught to read and write Braille. The study of music occupies an important place on the programme. As has been stated, graduates of the school receive vocational instruction in the shops of the Canadian National Institute for the Blind at Toronto.

27. Hard-of-hearing children pursue the regular school courses in hard-of-hearing classes or in regular classes with arrangements for weekly periods of special instruction in speech and lip-reading from a visiting teacher. Deaf pupils in day classes for the deaf and those in the Ontario School for the Deaf at Belleville follow a modified programme. Particularly during the first several years, a great deal of attention is paid to speech production, lip-reading, and the inculcation of language. While the first two are deemed important, the chief purpose in language training is to develop vocabulary and facility in the use of language to the end that the child may employ words as a medium for thinking as well as for communication. The pupils at the Ontario School for the Deaf are given sufficient basic vocational training to enable them later to learn rapidly to handle the special tools and machinery of the industry in which they may find employment.

28. Pupils in speech-correction classes or units receive instruction in the regular classroom, but take special instruction each week in the correction of speech habits and the production of normal speech.

29. Children in the Ontario Hospital School at Orillia and those in the experimental class at Kirkland Lake for children with intelligence quotients lower than 50 are given training in the acquisition of personal and social habits, and in the practice of simple repetitive types of work. The aim is to enable them to live happily and without friction if institutionalized, or

to be amenable to elementary social requirements, and capable of performing small useful tasks.

30. Children in opportunity classes, opportunity units, handicraft classes, and special industrial classes need simplified programmes and special methods of instruction. The more the child is retarded mentally, the more he requires to be taught specifically and concretely, and the less capable he is of thinking imaginatively or abstractly. Craft work is introduced at an earlier period and taught more extensively, partly for the purpose of giving compensatory satisfaction in achievement, and partly for the purpose of developing the fundamental skills used in gaining a livelihood.

31. Pupils who are retarded beyond the expectancy of intelligence in one or more subjects may be segregated in "pick-up" classes or may be in receipt of special periods of instruction in the subject or subjects in which they are retarded, usually given by a special teacher in the school or in the school area but sometimes by the pupil's own teacher. The general procedure followed is to explore a child's achievement until a reasonably sure grounding has been discovered, possibly two or three grades below his school standing, and then to reconstruct the work rapidly until he is able to continue the subject with his fellows in the grade.

32. Gifted pupils, as has been stated, usually devote half the day or its equivalent to the regular programme of study and the remainder of the time to additional subject matter, such as a second language, or to participation in various types of enterprise work. The purpose of the programme is to keep the pupil profitably employed, but not to accelerate his progress to the point where he will find himself in secondary school among students who are physically and socially, though not intellectually and scholastically, much more advanced.

RECOMMENDATIONS ON SPECIAL EDUCATION

33. In his first official return to the Minister of Education in 1920, the Inspector of Auxiliary Classes reported 17 auxiliary classes in operation in the province; in 1926, there were 165; in 1936, 345 classes and 26 units; and in 1946, 471 classes and 254 units.¹ As school boards are permitted but not required to provide special education for markedly atypical children, it is greatly to their credit and to that of the Department of Education that the expansion of this type of education has been so rapid. Despite the growth evidenced by the figures quoted for the above ten-year intervals, thousands of children in Ontario are in dire need of special education, and thousands of others could profit greatly from it.

34. Some idea of the magnitude of the task of providing special educational treatment for all the markedly atypical children in our province may be secured from a study of the incidence of the various types of defects

¹An additional large number of units were not reported for special legislative grant purposes.

in the child population. A number of cities, as well as a number of rural districts, have been carefully surveyed for cases of deviation. By establishing the ratio between the number of cases of any particular form thus discovered and the number of children of school age in the municipality, and then checking this fraction with the results obtained during surveys conducted in other provinces and countries, a fairly reliable co-efficient of incidence has been established. On the basis of the ratios thus obtained and an enrolment of 550,000 in the elementary schools of Ontario, the table of incidence (Table 1) has been compiled.

35. In the last two columns of Table 1 are shown the approximate

TABLE 1
TABLE OF INCIDENCE OF HANDICAPPED CHILDREN REQUIRING SPECIAL EDUCATION^a

<i>Variation</i>	<i>Requiring Special Educational Treatment</i>			
	<i>Ratio</i>	<i>Probable Number</i>	<i>Number Provided for</i>	<i>Number Remaining</i>
CRIPPLED				
Group 1—Home-bound	1/2000	275	181	94
Group 2—Transportable	1/2000	275	120	155
SICK				
Group 1—Home-bound	1/2000	275	180	95
Group 2—Malnourished	1/500	1,100	414	686
Group 3—Hospitalized	1/1000	550	243	307
EPILEPTICS ^b	1/5000	106		
BLINDED				
Group 1—Vision less than 10%	1/4000	137	116	21
Group 2—Require instruction	1/1000	550	350	200
DEAFENED				
Group 1—Unable to hear speech	1/1200	458	415	43
Group 2—Can use hearing aids	1/800	687	100	587
Group 3—Require speech reading	1/300	1,833	560	1,273
SPEECH-BOUND				
Group 1—Infantile and substitute	2/100	11,000	3,053	7,947
Group 2—Stutterers	1/1000	550	260	290
MENTALLY HANDICAPPED				
Group 1—I.Q. less than 50 ^b	1/4000	133		
Group 2—I.Q. 50—70 to 75	2/100	11,000	5,146	5,854
Group 3—I.Q. 71—90 and the maladjusted above 90	4/100	22,000	1,311	20,689
SOCIALLY HANDICAPPED				
Group 1—Far from school	1/2000	2,750	2,640	110
Group 2—Shelters and orphanages		10,000 ^c	10,000 ^c	0
Group 3—Reform institutions		230 ^c	230 ^c	0
Group 4—Non-attendance	1/5000	110	—	110

^aBased on enrolment of pupils in 1948.

^bData not available for "Number Provided for" and "Number Remaining".

^cThese pupils are on the roll of some elementary or secondary school.

number of children for whom special education is provided and the approximate number for whom it is not as yet available. Of the groups, the mentally handicapped is the largest, and may be sub-divided as follows:

- (1) Those who have an intelligence quotient below 50 (feeble-minded) are incapable of fending for themselves, cannot make progress in auxiliary classes, and are subject to exclusion procedure under Section 5 (1) of *The Public Schools Act*.
- (2) Those who have an intelligence quotient ranging between 50 and 70 or 75 are unable to make progress in the regular school grades, but under special methods of instruction are capable of being trained to become useful, self-supporting citizens. Persons in this group fall into two sub-groups: those whose mental limitations are due to heredity; and those whose limitations are the result of birth injury, accident, or disease. Children in the first sub-group are likely to develop well integrated personalities within their limitations. Those in the second sub-group are frequently erratic in achievement and behaviour.
- (3) Those who suffer from so-called emotional disturbances fall into three sub-groups: those who are in the early stage of insanity (usually dementia praecox) and stand in need of medical attention; those who are in the grip of obsessions and worries caused by home or school circumstances; and a very large group, frequently but not necessarily in the intelligence quotient range 75-90, whose progress in school is retarded and who are frequently victims of "mental blockage". This last condition may begin as a walling-out of attention from mental areas having to do with a certain school subject in which the pupil has failed to make normal progress. The inhibition may extend to encompass the entire school life of the pupil, who comes to "hate" school, or, in still more severe cases, result in partial or general amnesia. Pupils suffering from mental blockage stand as much in need of remedial personality treatment as of remedial exercises in the subject concerned.

36. Inclusion in the category "markedly atypical" or in the sphere of "special education" of a child who is unable to approach the average standard of achievement of his age group is a matter requiring careful consideration from the viewpoints of school economy, school efficiency, and pupil personality. Studies of intelligence indicate that for such pupils retardation in achievement is inevitable and will become increasingly apparent as ascent is made from junior to senior classes. For example, a child with an intelligence quotient of 80 will usually be two years retarded at age 10, and three years retarded at age 13, if he attempts a programme designed for average children. His progress will not be noticeably improved by special attention or special placement. Retardation of progress in this sense, to the extent of a year or more, is to be expected of the 20 per cent of pupils whose intelligence quotient falls below 91. But in such cases, if the

pupil has been reasonably happy in school and has been making appreciable progress even though over age for the group, transfer to a special group designated as markedly atypical has been considered to be of questionable advantage, except where the retardation has been excessive.

37. Where a pupil becomes "mentally blocked" as a result of broken attendance, emotional disturbances, or poor instruction, ceases to make progress commensurate with his ability, and is obviously unhappy in school, he stands in need of remedial attention or remedial placement. The number of such maladjusted pupils varies from school to school. Since many cases are the outcome of poor instruction—faulty courses of study, faulty texts, or faulty teaching—the ultimate solution is less a matter of special than of general education. However, the 2 per cent whose intelligence quotient range lies between 50 and 70-75 must inevitably suffer retardation of four years and upward in an average programme, and should, therefore, be placed in special classes. The number of pupils whose intelligence is higher than that of this group and who become sufficiently maladjusted to require placement in special classes or in special remedial groups depends largely on circumstances and cannot be predicted with any certainty. The 4 per cent figure given in Table 1 would seem to be a fair approximation of the outside limit.

Administration

38. The deficiency of adequate facilities for special education is not, in our opinion, attributable to lack of conscientious effort on the part of the officials of the Auxiliary Education Branch of the Department of Education. It is patent that, if the work is to be expanded under its present organization, the staff of this Branch should be augmented. But this does not appear to be the best solution. The attainment of adequate provision for handicapped children seems to be impossible without decentralization of administration and supervision and mandatory legislation requiring local education authorities to provide special educational treatment for these children. We believe that satisfactory results will be obtained only through legislation similar to that of the Education Act of 1944 for England and Wales, which requires local education authorities to provide special educational treatment in primary and secondary schools for those less severely handicapped and in special schools for those more severely handicapped.

39. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that each local education authority be responsible for the education of all children under its jurisdiction during the period of their compulsory school attendance, excepting only those deemed by competent authority to be ineducable;*
- (b) *that each local education authority be permitted to establish and conduct special classes for children under its jurisdiction who, not being ineducable, are unable, by reason of physical or mental de-*

- fect, to profit from instruction in the regular or adapted elementary or secondary school courses of the ordinary classrooms;*
- (c) that two or more local education authorities be permitted to make joint provision for such special educational treatment;*
 - (d) that each local education authority be required to determine, from time to time, the present and prospective number of handicapped children in its area, and to prepare and submit to the Minister of Education for approval a comprehensive and detailed development plan showing the action which the authority proposes should be taken for the education of such children;*
 - (e) (i) that regional boards,¹ in addition to their duties with regard to post-elementary education, be permitted, by agreement with an elementary school board or boards, to provide for handicapped children special educational treatment at the elementary school level;*
 - (ii) that, where such an arrangement is made, the public or separate school board or boards otherwise responsible for the education of such children be charged fees by the regional board for the special education of the handicapped children in attendance; such fees to be calculated on the basis of the net cost of such education to the regional board, and to be payable for each such child in attendance until June 30th of the calendar year during which he attains the age of 12 years;*
 - (f) that the approved cost of providing such special educational treatment be eligible for general legislative grants.*

40. To enable local education authorities to discharge their responsibilities effectively, we propose an organization and administration of special educational treatment similar to the following:

- (1) In large cities, a psychological service, consisting of a school psychologist with a staff of experienced teachers holding certificates in special education, which, in conjunction with the health, attendance and welfare services connected with the schools, would form a special-education clinic to undertake the discovery and examination of candidates and to make educational advisements.
- (2) In smaller cities, similar though smaller special-education clinics.
- (3) In other administrative units, a part-time or full-time school psychologist, or teacher holding a certificate in special education, who would, in conjunction with the local attendance officers and county health units, undertake the discovery and examination of candidates, make advisements concerning the establishment of classes and units, and exercise a limited degree of supervisory authority.

41. In conformity with our expressed policy of decentralization, the provincial special-education officials within the Department of Education

¹Including regional boards of education and regional post-elementary school boards.

should devote their time to the following: the organization of special education in accordance with approved development plans; the co-ordination of special-education services throughout the province in co-operation with local education authorities and their officials; and, upon request, the provision of expert technical assistance. As we have noted, responsibility for special-education services is at present divided among a number of branches of the Department of Education. In our opinion, to achieve co-ordination of effort within the Department it is necessary to have assigned to one branch responsibility for all services relating to special educational treatment. Accordingly we recommend

*that there be established a Special Education Branch within the Department of Education, under a Director of Special Education responsible to the Superintendents of Elementary and Secondary Education; and that this Branch be charged with responsibility for the organization and supervision of special-education services in the publicly supported schools of the province.*¹

42. In order that the terminology may be in conformity with usage in other provinces and countries, we recommend

*that the name "Special" be substituted for "Auxiliary" in the Acts and regulations of the Department of Education relating to special education.*¹

43. We fully realize that our terms of reference may not extend to the activities of other departments of government in the field of special education, but, since it is essential that the departments of government work together to achieve the aims established, we recommend

(a) *that close liaison and co-operation among the departments of government in the field of special educational treatment be continued;*

(b) *that consideration be given to the advisability of having the Department of Education assume more responsibility, including financial, for types of special education which at present are assigned to other departments of government.*

44. It should be noted in this connection that a uniform procedure of administration has not been established. In sanatoria, for example, the school is under an appointed public school board, whereas in other cases it is operated by the department of government concerned, although it is supervised by officials of the Minister of Education. Some formula should be established which would clearly define the responsibility of the Department of Education. In our opinion, the method of appointing a public school board followed in the case of sanatoria should be seriously considered for adoption as a common procedure.² Further, when such a formula is

¹See Chapter XIV.

²Since in these cases there will be no ratepayers, this seems to us to be a proper exception to our general recommendation that members of local education authorities be elected.

established, the Department of Education should consider implementing in all such schools the following specific recommendations of Brief 186, submitted by the Ontario Sanatorium Teachers' Association:

1. That the Department of Education adjust the legislative grants paid to sanatorium school boards to approximately 90% of approved expenditure.
2. That arrangements be made through the Department of Education whereby correspondence courses of a vocational nature may be provided to carefully chosen patients in sanatoria and on a shared-cost basis similar to the plan used in the province of Manitoba, the Department of Education assuming the greater proportion of the cost.
3. That correspondence courses for Grades XI, XII and XIII be prepared for the use of those who are unable to attend secondary schools.
4. That support be provided by the Department of Education for establishing vocational training programmes in the various sanatoria . . .

Ineducables

45. Children with intelligence quotients below 50 should be recognized as requiring institutional or supervisory protection throughout life; otherwise they will constitute a menace to society and society to them. We are of opinion that the Ontario Hospital School at Orillia will require enlargement, or duplication in another part of the province, if adequate provisions are to be made for such children. Only the type of special educational treatment available in such an institution will meet the needs of this group of children; and it must be provided on a provincial basis, since it cannot be properly arranged by each local education authority for the few cases under its own jurisdiction. According to the evidence at present available, special educational treatment of this type can be given only in a protective environment. It may be that the results of the experiment at Kirkland Lake, previously mentioned, will demonstrate that in some cases its equivalent can be given locally. In such case, owing to the cost, this should be undertaken by the local education authority only where it can be done without thereby jeopardizing the regular school programme.

Speech-defective, Crippled, and Home-bound

46. We have no particular comment to make on the treatment of the speech-defective, crippled, and home-bound. The special educational treatment at present provided seems to be suitable, and the only criticism brought to our attention was that the treatment was not more generally available. Our proposals in regard to administration should make possible the general extension of special educational treatment for such children, and accordingly we **recommend**

that the present special educational treatment of speech-defective, crippled, and home-bound children be continued and extended as quickly as possible to all those who may profit from it.

Far-away and Neglected

47. Similarly, with respect to the far-away and neglected, the present treatment seems suitable and we recommend

that special educational treatment as at present provided for far-away and neglected children be continued and extended.

Our recommendations on administration relevant to such cases have been given in an earlier chapter,¹ and should permit adequate provision to be made for the education of all such children.

Partially Sighted and Blind

48. In regard to the education of those who suffer from defective vision, it appears to us advisable that:

- (1) The Department of Education, in co-operation with local education authorities, provide the most advanced type of instructional supplies in order that, where possible, partially sighted pupils may continue with profit in the regular grades and, where this is not possible, may make more rapid progress in sight-saving classes.
- (2) The Department of Education, in conjunction with the Department of Health and local education authorities, seek to extend the means whereby optometric attention and spectacles may be provided for pupils who are in need of them and whose parents are unable to provide them. It is not a function of education to provide pupils with what may be considered private property; nor is it fitting that the public be deprived of an opportunity to exercise natural humane impulses. Several social agencies are at present providing spectacles to some children whose parents are indigent and might, in co-operation with others, be willing to assume responsibility for all such cases.

49. In our study of special problems associated with the education of blind children, we inspected the educational facilities and the methods of instruction at the Ontario School for the Blind, located in Brantford. These investigations confirmed a belief in the continuing need for a residential school or schools for the education of the blind. They also confirmed the opinion that, owing to the limited number of children severely handicapped in this respect, such school or schools should be operated by the Department of Education. We therefore recommend

that the Department of Education continue to operate at least one provincial residential school for blind children.

50. We do not propose to make suggestions in regard to methods of instruction to be followed at the Ontario School for the Blind. The present methods appear to be suitable: we were impressed by the understanding and sympathetic attitude displayed toward the students; and we assume that the specially trained staff will keep abreast of all developments in the field and attempt to make the Ontario School for the Blind a centre for

¹See Chapter XII.

research and experimentation in the education of blind children. But the accommodation provided is a different question; frankly, we were appalled by the conditions under which the staff and students work. The school buildings, with the exception of the residences, are inadequate, antiquated, dilapidated, dismal, poorly lighted, and constitute a fire hazard of first magnitude. For example, although the hospital has been recently renovated, it is distant from the kitchens and connected only by means of narrow, wooden stairs; and, through its location on the third floor, it is extremely dangerous in the event of fire. The same criticism may be fairly applied to the auditorium, also located on the third floor. Such deficiency in school plant, particularly where blind children are in attendance, is inexcusable. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that the existing buildings at the Ontario School for the Blind, with the exception of the residential facilities, be replaced forthwith by a new building suitably appointed for purposes of academic and vocational instruction;*
- (b) *that a hospital, separated from the other buildings and including an apartment for a resident nurse, be constructed immediately.*

51. The residences at the Ontario School for the Blind are in more satisfactory condition than the instructional buildings, though they should be maintained in a better state of repair. However, the school lacks a separated residence and separated school accommodation for junior pupils age 12 and under; and both are urgently needed in order that children may be admitted to the school at an earlier age and receive more adequate attention than is possible while they share accommodation with older boys and girls. We recommend

that suitable separated residential and instructional accommodation for junior pupils in attendance at the Ontario School for the Blind be constructed at once.

52. The whole-hearted co-operation between the Department of Education and the Canadian National Institute for the Blind is noteworthy and should be continued. The results attained under the present system are eminently satisfactory and worthy of high praise and commendation. Without the assistance rendered by the Institute, the education of blind children could not be fully effective.

Hard-of-hearing and Deaf

53. Experience in the education of the deaf and hard-of-hearing proves that a deaf child is greatly assisted in achieving emotional stability and social adjustment if he maintains normal home and social relations, and in speech production, lip-reading, and the acquisition of language if he begins his education at the earliest possible age. We suggest, therefore, that the Department of Education should encourage local education authorities to establish and operate day classes, including nursery schools and

kindergartens, for the deaf and hard-of-hearing. We also believe that steps should be taken, similar to those suggested for providing spectacles for pupils with defective vision, to provide individual hearing aids for hard-of-hearing children whose parents are indigent.

54. Although we have recommended that the education of the deaf and hard-of-hearing, as a part of special education, be primarily a responsibility of local education authorities, yet we do not hesitate to state that there is an additional need, as in the case of blind children, that can only be met by the continued operation of a provincial residential school or schools. We therefore recommend

that the Department of Education continue to operate at least one provincial residential school for deaf children.

55. The Commission received many submissions from persons in the province who are deeply interested in the education of deaf children, and was especially fortunate in being able to secure expert evidence from Dr. Elwood A. Stevenson, Superintendent of the California School for the Deaf, and from Dr. A. W. Ewing and his wife, Dr. Irene Ewing, at that time Director and Assistant Director, respectively, of the Department of Education of the Deaf in the University of Manchester, England. After reviewing the evidence from all sources and considering the divergent views expressed, particularly regarding methods of instruction, it was decided that members of the Commission should inspect the Ontario School for the Deaf at Belleville.

56. In general, the physical accommodation at the Ontario School for the Deaf was found to be satisfactory. Repairs were urgently needed, but we have been advised that since the time of our visit these have been undertaken. The main building is relatively new and provides satisfactory accommodation for instruction. The vocational shops, however, which are located in a remnant of the old building, are unsuitable and inadequate, and constitute a fire hazard. Since, as noted previously, it is highly desirable that deaf children should begin their education as early as possible, another junior dormitory is necessary. This additional building should include classrooms for the separate instruction of very young children. The present equipment for heating the school plant is antiquated, inadequate, and in need of frequent repairs. We recommend

- (a) *that the buildings at present used for vocational education at the Ontario School for the Deaf be replaced forthwith by a new building, suitably appointed for the purpose;*
- (b) *that a junior dormitory, with classrooms incorporated, be constructed immediately;*
- (c) *that a modern heating plant, centrally located to serve all buildings, be immediately installed.*

57. As already intimated, there is disagreement as to the methods to be followed in teaching deaf children. The question is, apparently, whether

manual or oral methods of instruction should be used, or a third method, commonly referred to as the combined system, using finger-spelling, lip-reading, and speech. The conflict between exponents of the different methods is particularly bitter in the United States, and is reflected in this province. Fortunately, however, all parties in Ontario agree that oral instruction should occupy a dominant position.¹ As far as we can determine, the disagreement in our province is whether or not the other methods of communication—signs and finger-spelling—should also be taught and used in instruction. There has been no specific criticism of the staff at the Ontario School for the Deaf; indeed, it is apparent to all, and we mention it only to commend, that members of the staff exhibit a most patient and sympathetic attitude toward the pupils and their individual problems. Teaching methods will, of course, always be a matter for continuing evaluation. Nevertheless, in view of publicity given to the controversy, we feel compelled to state our views on the matter. We do so, although we realize that the validity of our comments is subject to research and experiment in this field of special education.

58. Signing appears to be the normal method of communication among deaf people; not only is it easily acquired and exercised, but by this means the ideas relating to most of the affairs of ordinary life may be communicated. However, signs do not represent words but usually specific ideas only. Signing is not a language, since mental images rather than words are the basis. Finger-spelling, in which words are spelled letter by letter, is very different. It requires vocabulary, knowledge of language structure, and ability to express thoughts in words—that is to say, it is “spelling” instead of “speaking” a language. It will be realized, of course, that finger-spelling requires a previous mastery of language, is difficult to acquire and read, and can be used as a means of communication only when both parties are skilled in its use. As we noted while observing students at the Ontario School for the Deaf who were engaged in play and social activities, deaf people tend to use a combination of signs and finger spelling in communicating with each other. Signs are used most of the time; but, apparently, new names or abstract ideas can be expressed only through finger-spelling or speech.

59. Obviously, if the deaf were to live in colonies or if a deaf person were to associate only with other deaf persons, signing could be used almost exclusively as a means of communication. It is equally clear, however, that communication would be restricted to specific ideas, thereby limiting cultural development, and communication with the hearing world could only be attained through liaison officers who could hear and speak as well as sign. On the other hand, if the deaf person is to belong to the normal social group he must master language through lip-reading, development of

¹See, for example, *Memorandum to The Honourable Colonel George Drew, K.C.*, submitted by the Ontario Association of the Deaf, November 12, 1943.

speech, writing, and so on. This is the crux of the matter. Are deaf persons to be segregated and forced to associate and communicate only with other deaf persons, or are they to be enabled to communicate and associate both with the hearing and the deaf in the normal social order? In our opinion, the latter alternative is infinitely better; and it follows that the education of the deaf, in methods of instruction as in all other aspects, must be directed toward this goal.

60. Thus, a deaf child must be taught to lip-read since he cannot "hear" in any other way; and he must be taught to speak in order that others may hear him. In our opinion this determines which method of instruction should be dominant. It must be oral; otherwise these skills will never be developed. Mastery of language will provide the deaf child with the key to his further development and to his future. Admittedly, the development of language skills and the acquisition of facility with language are difficult, but we are convinced that they are possible of attainment. Experience has proved that the goal can be reached, but that continuous and persistent effort is required. Nearly all deaf children can develop skill in language if the oral method of instruction is followed. A few cannot, particularly if they suffer from additional handicaps. For these, only a restricted form of communication—signing—can be mastered.

61. Signing and finger-spelling should be used as methods of instruction only when all efforts through oral methods have failed, and should not, therefore, be used in instructing deaf children who are making satisfactory progress in language development. Communication and instruction must be oral, since language will be mastered only to the extent that it is used. Furthermore, signing does not need to be taught specifically; it can be learned incidentally, as it must be learned if the requisite amount of time is to be devoted to the development of language skills. Deaf children should, of course, be permitted to use manual methods in communicating with each other outside the classroom; and we were pleased to note that they are freely used under such circumstances in the Ontario School for the Deaf, though in the classroom and in communicating with hearing persons speech and lip-reading are used, and in our opinion rightly so.

62. Some of the remaining questions connected with this subject, such as the training of teachers and their salaries, will be dealt with in later chapters. Others must be briefly referred to at this point.

- (1) The Ontario Association of the Deaf suggested to us that the Ontario School for the Deaf should employ suitably qualified deaf persons as teachers, deans, counsellors, and in other capacities. In our opinion, this would be a serious mistake. It is difficult enough for a person with normal hearing to teach deaf children the language skills; the employment of deaf persons would tend largely to nullify the effort to develop language by the oral method.

- (2) A number of students at the Ontario School for the Deaf, and in day classes also, have residual hearing. This should be utilized to the fullest extent by the use of modern individual and group hearing aids. More equipment of this kind is required at the Ontario School for the Deaf.
- (3) The Ontario School for the Deaf should be a centre for research and experimentation in the education of the deaf, for example in the use of "visible speech" and other methods. We suggest, therefore, that arrangements be made in staffing, accommodation, and equipment, and through study by staff members in England and the United States, for the school to become such a centre for the province.¹
- (4) Special attention should be paid to the early detection of deafness and to the education of very young deaf children in their homes and elsewhere. Much is lost if special educational treatment is delayed; this applies particularly to language development and the capacity to produce intelligible speech.
- (5) Where it is possible for deaf children to make satisfactory progress in the ordinary classrooms, as apparently it is in many cases, they should attend schools and classes with hearing children. Special arrangements may be required, such as in seating and the assignment of such children to specially qualified teachers, but it is eminently desirable that deaf children be not segregated and that, where possible, they associate with hearing children in a normal social environment.
- (6) Particular attention should be paid to the education of hard-of-hearing pupils and to those with even a little residual hearing. It should not be necessary, nor is it advisable, that they be grouped with deaf children or taught by methods used in teaching those who have no hearing.

63. The Department of Education should continue to co-operate with the National Society of the Deaf and the Hard of Hearing. Special vocational training and placement in industry, including "follow-up" investigations, are necessary to enable deaf and hard-of-hearing persons to become self-supporting and to attain full citizenship.

Mentally Atypical

64. In a previous section we discussed provisions which should be made for the instruction of the feeble-minded in institutions such as the Ontario Hospital School at Orillia. We discussed the gifted, the slow learners, and the defaulting, in Chapters IV and V. However, a few additional comments in regard to the special educational treatment of such children are appropriate at this point.

65. We are not fully convinced, despite the evidence of some experts,

¹Our comments and suggestions in this regard apply also to the Ontario School for the Blind.

that highly gifted children (intelligence quotient 130 and over) should be separated from their fellows and educated in special classes. We appreciate that this is an important question; other things being equal, it is from the ranks of the gifted that our future leaders will come. There are dangers attendant upon such separation, for example the development of "intellectual snobbery" or a possible lack of understanding and appreciation of persons of average intelligence. It should be possible to meet the needs of even the very gifted through the reorganization of programmes, curricula, and courses (outlined in Chapters IV and V), and at the same time to retain the necessary association of these individuals with others of their appropriate social group. Before further special classes for the gifted are established, the Department of Education might well conduct a thorough investigation of the methods of selection and instruction employed in the advancement classes which have been operating in London, Ontario, for upwards of 20 years and of similar classes in the United States; and compare the success of graduates of these classes in secondary school, university, and in their chosen walk of life with that of comparable pupils who have not been educated in special classes.

66. As is recognized in the present *Auxiliary Classes Act* and the regulations made thereunder, children with intelligence quotients in the range 50 to 75, approximately, require special educational treatment in classes distinct from those of the regular educational system. This special treatment is at present provided in auxiliary classes, and must be continued under any reorganization. However, as previously noted, such special facilities should be provided by local education authorities.

67. In earlier chapters,¹ we recommended that children with intelligence quotients over 75 be educated in the schools of the regular educational system, subject to necessary adaptations of the curriculum and courses of study. Nevertheless, some of these children, because of a combination of handicaps or for other reasons, may not be able to make satisfactory progress in their appropriate group. Prediction of the number of those who will require placement in special classes is impossible; but special educational treatment for varying periods of time will be required, and should be provided. We do not mean that, as a general procedure, slow learning children should be segregated from their fellows and educated in special classes. On the contrary, they should be educated with other children of the appropriate age and social group, and only in extreme cases should such children be assigned to special classes and given special educational treatment.

68. This leads naturally to a discussion of the special educational treatment of the defaulting child, that is, one of normal or superior abilities whose achievement in one or more school subjects is far below the level of his ability. Special education must not be required to provide repair

¹Chapters IV and V.

shops for poor schooling, nor should it condone or even encourage inefficient administration and teaching by assuming responsibility for rectifying the outcome of avoidable errors. Special educational treatment, in the sense in which we use it, should be made available only for markedly atypical children. Teachers, supervisors, and administrators concerned with education in the ordinary schools should rectify their own errors, not transfer the results of their mistakes to the field of special education. This seems to be a sphere where the Department of Education might well undertake intensive research with a view to discovering the causes which underlie the prevalence of retardation beyond the expectancy of intelligence, and take steps to remedy defects, such as those in courses of study, textbooks, or methods of instruction, found to be conducive to such retardation. Remedial classes or remedial instruction should be introduced, where necessary, in order that the province may not be put to unnecessary expense in providing special educational treatment for pupils who are not essentially atypical and who, under happier and more suitable conditions, should make progress and enjoy association with their fellows in the classes of the general educational system.

Attitudinally Atypical

69. The treatment of attitudinally atypical children, the emotionally unstable or the delinquent, for example, should not normally be the responsibility of local or central education authorities. Many of these cases require diagnosis and prescription by a psychiatrist. Teachers are not trained psychiatrists; for them to attempt to diagnose and prescribe treatment is not merely foolish, it is dangerous to the welfare of the mentally sick child. During the teacher-training course, however, a non-technical objective study of mental hygiene should occupy an important place on the programme. The purpose should not be to train teachers to treat gross manifestations of mental disorder, but to have them appreciate the importance of mental integration (unity of mind), deliberation, and self-control in the education of the child; to have them become familiar with the normal stages of development; and to enable them to detect and report incipient divergencies and, under competent direction, to apply preventive measures if such fall within the purview of the school.

CHAPTER XVI

HISTORY OF THE FRENCH LANGUAGE IN THE PUBLICLY SUPPORTED SCHOOLS OF ONTARIO

1. To understand the situation today, where in our predominantly English-speaking province approximately 9 per cent of pupils in elementary schools are enrolled in classrooms in which French is a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister of Education, it is necessary to trace briefly the history of instruction in, and the use of, the French language in our schools.

2. Before Confederation, the number of French-speaking settlers in what is now Ontario was small. About the year 1700, French-Canadian pioneers began to settle along the south side of Lake St. Clair and along the Detroit River in what is now the County of Essex. In the counties of Prescott and Russell, the first settlers were English-speaking, but French-Canadians entered this part of the province as lumbermen and later settled on unoccupied lands. In 1851 the population of French racial origin, according to the census, was 4,126 in Prescott and Russell and 5,424 in the County of Essex. By 1881 these figures had increased to 24,223 for the counties of Prescott and Russell and to 14,658 for the County of Essex. French-speaking persons had also settled in other parts of Ontario. In 1851 the census listed the French population in Upper Canada as 26,471; this number had increased to 33,287 in 1861.

3. There is very little reference to the use of French or any language other than English in the schools in Upper Canada in these early years. In this connection, Sissons states:

It is doubtful if these matters [situations in which the French language might be used] were ever seriously considered; at any rate no mention is made of them in the prolonged conferences which led up to Confederation. It may perhaps be inferred that the French population of Ontario was considered negligible . . .¹

Sissons also quotes D'Arcy McGee, one of the Fathers of Confederation, as saying:

The people of Upper Canada were one people, speaking one language, strongly

¹C. B. Sissons, *Bi-lingual Schools in Canada*, Toronto: Dent, 1917, p. 37.

imbued with one class of principles . . . but Lower Canada had two distinct peoples, speaking different languages, having separate interests . . . ¹

Sissons goes on to state:

Apparently this is the only reference preserved in any of the records of these deliberations [debates preceding Confederation] as to language in Ontario. In default of any other expression of opinion, in view of the existing circumstances, and in the light of the fairly definite wording of the Act, the conclusion is justified that the Fathers of Confederation did not seek either to confer any new legal right on the French language in the schools of Ontario or to confirm any rights or privileges previously existing.²

4. Prior to 1816, when the first Common Schools Act was passed, no control was exercised by the central authority over what we now term elementary school education; in fact, little was exercised until after the beginning of Ryerson's regime. The government and its officials seem to have been content to provide limited financial assistance and slowly to achieve some regulation of the conduct of the schools. Possibly the best indication of their meagre knowledge of conditions in common schools may be found in the Chief Superintendent's Annual Report for 1845-46.³ Under the heading "Course and Extent of Study in Common Schools", Ryerson stated:

Reading, Writing, Grammar, Arithmetic and Geography are taught in most of the Common Schools; but to what extent, or in what manner, they are taught, or what other subjects are taught in the Schools, are points on which I have no information beyond the casual opinions of District School Superintendents . . .

Thus, until at least the middle of the nineteenth century, local education authorities were almost completely autonomous in all matters concerning the conduct of schools and what was taught in them.

5. Until 65 years ago a knowledge of English was not required of all teachers in elementary schools in Ontario. The first step toward establishing a uniform standard and system of examinations for teachers in Upper Canada was taken under the Common Schools Act of 1850. Therein, it was specified as a duty of each county board of public instruction:

To examine and give certificates of qualification to teachers of Common Schools, arranging such teachers into three classes according to their attainments and ability, as shall be prescribed in a programme of examination and instruction to be provided according to law.⁴

Regulations made under this Act to govern the county boards of public instruction specified a knowledge of reading, writing, and English grammar, but made no provision for languages other than English. However, in April,

¹*Ibid.*, p. 39.

²*Ibid.*

³J. G. Hodgins, *Historical and Other Papers and Documents*, Vol. V, 1842-1861, Toronto: King's Printer, 1912, p. 13.

⁴Most of the documents from which the history of instruction in, and the use of, the French language in elementary schools for the period 1850 to about 1890 has been secured, may be found in a collection of Sessional Papers, entitled *Bilingual Teaching 1887 to 1896*, 379.71 O.M. 8B. The quotations appearing in following paragraphs, unless otherwise noted, are from this source.

1851, the use of French was brought to the attention of the Council of Public Instruction for the province through a memorial from the inhabitants of School Section 6 in the Township of Sandwich in the County of Essex. It was forwarded by the County Board of Public Instruction for Essex in regard to a teacher named Gigon, who, although qualified in French, apparently had little or no knowledge of English. The school trustees had applied to the Board for permission to engage Mr. Gigon, but it was requested in the memorial that he be not engaged because, although he knew French, he had no knowledge of English, in which language they wished to have their children taught. In referring the case to the Council of Public Instruction, the secretary of the Essex Board of Public Instruction stated:

Of the candidates presenting themselves before the Board of Public Instruction and belonging to the Township of Sandwich there has not hitherto been any one who did not possess, at all events, in some degree, a knowledge of English language.

Mr. Gigon, who came before the Board to-day, is entirely ignorant of it, and upon reference to the programme of examination prescribed by the Council of Public Instruction, the Board of Examiners present felt constrained to refuse to grant, at present, a certificate of qualification.

As, however, it might possibly be urged on behalf of Mr. Gigon, that in this part of Upper Canada, in the midst of a French community, the programme of examination should not be strictly adhered to, and that there would be injustice in debarring a teacher from desiring a participation in the government appropriation of moneys for schools, because although capable of imparting the elements of a good education, he conveys instruction only in the French language, the language of the pupils who attend his school—the Board have deemed Mr. Gigon's case of sufficient importance to be submitted to the Chief Superintendent as being decisive of the principle whether or not it is an essential toward the obtaining of Government support that teachers of common schools should deliver or be able to deliver their instructions in the English language.

6. On April 25, 1851, the Council of Public Instruction, by adding the following clause to the programme for the examination and classification of teachers, permitted the substitution of a knowledge of French or German grammar for a knowledge of English grammar:

8. In regard to teachers of French or German, that a knowledge of French or German Grammar be substituted for a knowledge of English grammar, and that the certificate to the teacher be expressly limited accordingly.¹

In writing to the secretary of the Board of Public Instruction of Essex, Hodgins stated:

Mr. Gigon having complied with these conditions, as intimated in your letter, the Council of Public Instruction for Upper Canada has sanctioned a liberal construction of the programme to which you refer, making the term "English" convertible into the term "French" where it occurs, and when applied to French candidates for examination before the County Board of Public Instruction. The

¹The Council of Public Instruction extended the privilege to include German, although there is no record of a similar request to qualify a teacher who knew German only.

certificate should, of course, be expressly limited to teaching in the French language.

7. On December 17, 1858, the Council of Public Instruction reiterated the provision for teachers of French or German and on March 28, 1871, added the following explanatory note:

In regard to teachers in French or German settlements, a knowledge of the French or German grammar respectively may be substituted for a knowledge of the English grammar, and the certificates to the teachers expressly limited accordingly.

In November of the same year, Ryerson, in replying to a letter from Thomas Pierce, the county inspector at Berlin, stated with reference to German candidates for teachers' certificates:

I suppose they can all read English, and the ordinary examination papers can be used by them without translation, allowing them to prepare their answers in German, except in reading, spelling, etymology and grammar, in which some members of your Board might prepare examination papers. The certificates of the candidates would be for teaching schools in the German language and not English schools, and would be made either for three years or permanent, as determined by your Board.

8. The Council of Public Instruction in November, 1871, ordered:

That the Chief Superintendent be authorized to make such provision for the examination of those candidates for certificates who speak the German language as he may deem expedient.

A special examination of such candidates was authorized on October 8, 1874, under Section 4 of the Public School Regulations; and this authorization was repeated in 1883. In *The Public Schools Act*, of 1885,¹ it was stated:

Where deemed necessary from the general use of the French or German language, it shall be lawful for the county council to appoint two additional examiners for the purpose of conducting examinations in either of the languages aforesaid, of such candidates as may present themselves for certificates to teach a public school, subject to the regulations of the Education Department.

Regulation 155 of those approved by the Education Department in August, 1885, added an additional qualification:

In addition to the examination conducted in the French or the German language, every candidate for a teacher's certificate shall be required to pass such examinations in English grammar and in translation from French or German into English, as may be prescribed by the Board of Examiners.

In 1885, therefore, for the first time a knowledge of English was required of all candidates applying for a teaching certificate valid in public elementary schools.

9. The use in schools of textbooks in the French language shows a development similar to that outlined for the training and certification of teachers. Before the middle of the nineteenth century no textbook in the

¹48 Vict., Ch. 49, Sec. 170, S.O.

French language was prescribed or recommended by the central authority.¹ On the 8th of October, 1856, Ryerson, in reply to a letter from Mills, the local superintendent of the County of Kent, wrote as follows:

I have the honour to state in reply to your letter of the 25th ult. that as there is no list of books prescribed or recommended for French schools, and as it may be presumed that the pupils attending them are for the most part or altogether Roman Catholics, I do not see that we can do anything in regard to the kind of books which are used in the few schools of French people in Upper Canada.

Apparently, not until the 20th of April, 1868, was a list of textbooks in the French language authorized for the French schools of the province by the Council of Public Instruction. In 1879, however, the Education Department—as witness the following minute—adopted for use in certain schools in Ontario the list of books authorized for use in Quebec:

In Public Schools where there are both Protestant and Roman Catholic French scholars, the books sanctioned by the Protestant and Roman Catholic Committees of the Council of Public Instruction for Quebec may be used . . .

In 1889 the Education Department removed from the list of authorized textbooks those in the French language authorized in 1868 and 1879, substituted a series of “French-English Readers”, and listed an authorized grammar. The readers selected were those which had been authorized in the provinces of New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island “for all schools in which the French language is taught to elementary classes”. The list of authorized readers was preceded by the following introductory statement:

Where the French language prevails, and the trustees, with the approval of the Inspector require French to be taught in addition to English, the authorized Readers to be used for this purpose shall be . . .

10. It is difficult to appreciate the fact that until about 65 years ago English was not always taught in our elementary schools. The following quotations from reports of inspectors to the Education Department describe the situation with respect to the use of English in the schools, and indicate that, in addition to French, the German, Gaelic, and Indian languages were used. Writing from the County of Bruce in 1856, Eckford stated:

I may in a few words, notice the Roman Catholic Separate Schools in Carrick. *German* is the only language taught or spoken. I have urged the necessity of English instruction, at least, in conjunction therewith, and the force of my remarks have been acknowledged and may lead to improvement.

For the County of Perth, 1860, the Rev. Thomas Macpherson reported:

The reason of so many children of school age, in these townships not attending school, is the fact that a large proportion of the inhabitants speak the *German* language. It is very difficult to get suitable teachers for these schools and several of the teachers employed are very imperfect in the knowledge of the *English* language.

¹For a general discussion of textbooks, see Chapter VI.

Hughes, writing from Alfred Township in the County of Prescott in 1861, stated with reference to French-Canadians:

Another reason why they are not more benefited is because they employ cheap teachers. They are easily pleased with a teacher if he or she can teach the catechism, etc. I have been trying to persuade them to employ English teachers and have their children learn English and then they can use the national books. Several of them are now anxious for the change.

Lumsden, in speaking of conditions in the County of Prescott in 1868, stated: "Lastly, the use of English in the schools is the hope of one who hears *Gaelic* and *French* as frequently as English as the common vernacular of the population." For the County of Essex in 1870, Girardot wrote: "In six schools, the pupils being *French*, that language is taught with the English." And Steele, in the same report, spoke of the ". . . mixed nature of the population, *three* languages being spoken in some schools, viz., the English, French and Gaelic; and *two*, the English and French, in very many." For the County of Russell in 1874, the Rev. Thomas Garrett wrote: "Many of the schools are half English, half *French* as to language, and rarely in such schools do we find the ideal teacher in charge." Jenkyns, writing from the District of Nipissing in 1876, stated:

Three languages prevail amongst the pupils, viz.: *French* which predominates, *English* and *Indian*. And as long as this difficulty exists, the teacher who undertakes to teach English subjects, must encounter a very serious obstacle in the way of progress and efficiency.

As late as 1882, J. F. White, Inspector of Roman Catholic separate schools, could state:

FRENCH AND GERMAN SCHOOLS—In Waterloo County there are many sections where German is the language of both teachers and pupils. Generally, in those schools, one-half of the day is devoted to teaching in the mother tongue and the other part to English studies. In these, thanks to the energy and proficiency of their teachers, they have made very great progress, in some places doing quite as well as the pupils of schools where English alone is taught.

In several places in Essex and in the counties adjacent to the Ottawa, French is the language of the people and of the schools. Though the attention paid to their own tongue is highly praiseworthy, and the progress made therein very fair, it is much to be regretted that English, the great language of the country, is so frequently neglected. In some of the places in eastern Ontario it is quite unknown to teachers or pupils. This necessitates the carrying on in French of the examination of the classes, and of the whole work of inspection.

In 1885 Inspector White reported:

In some of the counties along the Ottawa River, but chiefly in the counties of Prescott and Russell, there are several separate schools in which *French* children form either the majority or the whole of those in attendance. In general both the *English* and *French* languages are taught in all such schools. Sometimes the principal part of the studies is in English, and the subjects taught in *French* are reading, grammar, composition and religious instruction . . . In other cases the two languages receive about equal attention and sometimes the greater part of the teaching and instruction is given in *French*. However, of the whole number

of teachers in these French schools—thirty—there were but two or three who were teaching exclusively in French . . .

11. Until the year 1885 the teaching of English in the public elementary schools in French settlements was apparently left to the judgment of the trustees and teachers. As a consequence, in some of these schools the English language was never used as a language of instruction and communication or taught as a subject of instruction. In speaking to a resolution in the Legislative Assembly of Ontario on Friday, March 8, 1889, the Honourable George W. Ross, then Minister of Education, stated:

Now, it might be interesting to the House to know the early policy of the Department on this question. You are doubtless aware, Mr. Speaker, that at the time of the organization of our school system in 1846, there were large French settlements in different parts of this Province. You are also aware, no doubt, that the Education Department made provision for the examination of teachers in both French and German, and yet you may be surprised to learn that under Dr. Ryerson's administration, extending over thirty years, the study of English was not made obligatory in either French or German settlements. I do not mention this, sir, to censure the late Chief Superintendent, or to reflect upon the policy of the Department under his administration, and yet I may note that during these long years, with a Conservative administration in power, the greater part of the time, no complaint was made that English was neglected. On my accession to office, my attention was called to this state of affairs, and in 1885 I submitted for the approval of the Lieutenant Governor in Council a regulation, which will be found in the Statutes and Regulations of my Department, by which the study of English is made compulsory in every public school in Ontario.

So far then as the policy of the Department is concerned, it was not until 1885, and under the present administration, too, that the study of English was made imperative in all our public schools; and in order to show that this regulation was intended to be operative and effectual, it was followed up by instructions to inspectors, dated September, 1885, in which minute directions were given to teachers engaged in mixed schools as to mode of introducing the study of English.¹

The regulation referred to reads as follows:

The programme of studies herein provided shall be followed by the teacher as far as the circumstances of his school permit. Any modifications deemed necessary should be made only with the concurrence of the inspector and trustees. *In French and German schools the authorized Readers should be used in addition to any text books in either of the languages aforesaid.*²

Since the authorized readers were in English, this regulation was designed to ensure that English would be taught in every school. The regulation was enforced: in 1887 there were 27 departments in which no English was taught; this number was reduced to 6 in 1888; and in 1889 the inspectors

¹*The French Language in our Public Schools.* Speech delivered by Hon. Geo. W. Ross, Minister of Education in the Legislative Assembly of Ontario, Friday, March 8th, 1889, Toronto: Hunter, Rose, 1889, p. 2.

²Quoted in *Provincial Politics, 1890.* Report of the Speeches delivered by Hon. Mr. Mowat, Hon. Geo. W. Ross, Mr. Ewanturel, M.P.P. in the Legislative Assembly, April 3rd, 1890 on the Proposed Amendments to the School Act in relation to the use of the French Language in the Public Schools, Toronto: Hunter, Rose, 1890, pp. 10-11.

testified that 'English is taught in every Public School in the counties.' A circular issued by the Department in September, 1885, was entitled "General Directions for teachers of English and French Schools". The introduction read: "The following exercises are submitted for teachers in charge of English and French schools, as an outline of the course to be pursued in order to secure a better knowledge of the English language . . ." The allotment of time was specified as follows: "Classes I. and II. at least two hours a week; Classes III. and IV., at least four hours a week." Since the term "Class" as applied to the organization for grading pupils included two of our present "grades", the prescription was not onerous. For the study of English, only two hours a week were required as a minimum in the first four years and four hours a week in the last four years of the traditional eight-year elementary school.

12. In 1889 the government appointed a commission of three members for the purpose "of making full and careful enquiry by personal inspection and any other way they may deem expedient, into the teaching of English in the Public Schools of the said counties in which the French language is taught, and the observance of the Regulations of the Education Department generally by teachers, trustees and other school officers therein . . ." The counties in question were those of Prescott, Russell, Essex, Kent, and Simcoe; and the commissioners were Tilley, Reynar, and McLeod. The commissioners recommended the establishment of a special school for the "training of French teachers in the English language" and the holding of special institutes for the immediate benefit of the teachers employed in the French schools. They recommended, further, that a bilingual series of readers—French and English—be provided for the French schools in Ontario and that "the use of unauthorized text books in these schools be discontinued". In their general remarks, they stated:

The object aimed at in the Public Schools of the Province, is to give to the youth attending them such an education in the common branches of knowledge, as will fit them to occupy creditably the positions in life they may be called to fill, and this education should be imparted in the English language. Any departure from this rule should be only partial and in accommodation to the peculiar circumstances of certain sections of the country, in order that the end sought may thereby be more fully attained.

13. They reported that in all the French schools in the counties they visited an effort was being made to impart a knowledge of the English language, but that there were some schools in which the time devoted to the study of English and to its use was too limited. But they pointed out:

In dealing with these schools, in order to raise them to a higher standard, and to secure a satisfactory teaching of the English language in them, time must be allowed, and patience must be exercised. For many years, the French people were allowed to conduct their schools in their own way, no exception being taken either by the Education Department, or by the Public. Special provision was made to secure French teachers for them and French text-books were authorized for their schools . . .

We have reason to believe also, that whatever changes may be necessary to render these schools more efficient, and to advance the children more rapidly and intelligently in the knowledge of English, will be welcomed by the French people themselves . . . Some of the people spoken with seemed to think, that there had been in recent years an increased determination on the part of the French people to give prominence to their language to the exclusion of the English. They believe they see evidence of this in the social and educational tendencies in their localities. While this may be the case in some places, residents in other districts had observed no tendency in that direction.

14. They remarked upon the difference between the results obtained in the counties of Prescott and Russell, in which the population was predominantly French, and in the counties of Essex and Kent, where a large proportion of the population was English. With particular reference to the latter schools, they stated that: "There are some of these schools in which English has been well taught for many years, so that they are practically English schools . . ."

15. The commissioners emphasized the desire of the French to have their children learn the French language:

They [the French people] have lived for a long period in the localities where they are found, enjoying the use of their native language. They are strongly attached to it. It is the language of their fathers, and the language used in their homes and spoken by their children. It is natural that they should cherish it with affection, and desire their children to acquire a knowledge of it. If the schools are dealt with justly, and with due consideration for the feelings of the people, and if the recommendations made in this report are adopted, we believe these schools, within a reasonable time, will be raised to a degree of efficiency that will be satisfactory to both the English and the French people.

16. On October 18, 1889, following the receipt of the report of the Commission, the Minister of Education published a circular of instructions to teachers and trustees of French-English schools. He maintained that the teachers in these schools should study English:

It is very desirable that teachers not familiar with the English language should apply themselves at once to the study of English.

Not only shall the teacher conduct in the English language every exercise and recitation from the prescribed English text-books, but communication between teacher and pupil in matters of discipline, and in the management of the school shall be in English, except so far as this is impracticable by reason of the pupil not understanding English.

He made reference to teachers' institutes, to a model school for French teachers, and to bilingual readers; and he outlined a course of study to be applicable to both French and German schools, except for textbooks in the French or German language. With respect to the time to be devoted to the study of English, the circular stated:

As the time to be devoted to the study of English in schools where the French or German language prevails depends upon the knowledge of English possessed by the pupils upon entering school, no time limit for the study of English can be fixed, the necessities of his pupils being the teacher's best guide in this matter.

It shall be the duty of the Inspector, however, to see that the subjects prescribed for each form are taught efficiently and that the study of French or German does not encroach upon the time necessary to acquire a thorough knowledge of English.

The commissioners had reported that unauthorized textbooks were still being used in some schools. In the circular, Ross stated that "These should be removed without delay" and that the school Act and regulations in this respect should be "strictly adhered to". In sending the "Instructions" to the inspectors concerned the Minister wrote:

I shall expect you to report in detail on your next visit as to every matter to which attention is called in these Instructions, but more particularly as to the extent which English is studied, the use of unauthorized text books, and the observance of the regulations with respect to religious exercises.

17. Of the special regulations of the Education Department relative to French and German schools, approved February 10, 1890, the first three were as follows:

(1) In school sections where the French or German language prevails, the trustees, with the approval of the Inspector, may, in addition to the course of study prescribed for Public Schools, require instruction to be given in reading, grammar and composition to such pupils as are directed by their parents or guardians to study either of these languages, and in all such cases the authorized text-books in French or German shall be used.

(2) It shall be the duty of the teacher to conduct every exercise and recitation from the text books prescribed for Public Schools, in the English language, and all communications between teacher and pupil in regard to matters of discipline and in the management of the school shall be in English, except so far as this is impracticable by reason of the pupil not understanding English. Recitations in French or German may be conducted in the language of the text-book.

(3) It shall be the duty of the Inspector to examine carefully in English every pupil according to the course of studies prescribed for Public Schools; but he shall be at liberty to use his own discretion as to what explanations he will give in any other language that appears to be better known by the pupil. The standard of efficiency recognized in Public Schools where the English language only is taught shall be the standard for French and German schools, reasonable allowance being made for pupils whose mother tongue is French or German. The Inspector shall report at once to the Education Department any school in which the regulations respecting the study and use of English are disregarded by the teacher or trustees.¹

18. Other regulations dealt with the establishment of a model school for the special training of French or German teachers and with the examination of such teachers for certificates; ". . . the final examination for certificates to teach", one of the regulations read, "shall be conducted in the English language. There shall also be a final examination in the French or German language, in reading, grammar and composition."

19. Here then, is an official recognition of the desire of the French and German inhabitants of Ontario to have their children study their mother tongue, together with specific provisions intended to meet that desire. But

¹*Ibid.*, pp. 21-22.

English was to be studied in all schools; and it is logical to infer from the wording of the regulations that as soon as the pupil understood English it was to become the language of instruction and communication.

20. In 1893 the government appointed a second commission, with the same personnel as that of 1889, to investigate the teaching of English in the schools in the counties of Prescott and Russell, where the French language prevailed. Definite improvement was reported; the teachers as a whole appeared to have a better understanding of the English language, and more success was being achieved in teaching it.

21. In the regulations referred to above, no direct reference was made to the teaching of English in separate schools. It is significant, therefore, that the commissioners in their report of 1893 commented:

The schools visited this year were the same as those visited in 1889. Since that time, however, 27 of these schools have become Separate Schools. One probable reason for these numerous changes was the uneasiness excited amongst the French people by the agitation over their schools four years ago, and the fear lest their privileges might be interfered with.

It is but right to observe in this connection that we found the Separate Schools, to say the least, fully equal to the Public Schools in regard to the standing of their teachers and to the diligence and efficiency with which the English language is taught.

22. In 1896, *An Act Consolidating and Revising the Public Schools Acts*¹ set forth, for the first time in such an enactment, that one of the duties of teachers was:

To use the English language in the instruction of the school and in all communications with the pupils in regard to discipline and the management of the school, except where impracticable by reason of the pupil not understanding English. Recitations requiring the use of a text-book may be conducted in the language of the text-book.

This duty appears in Section 103 (b) of the present *Public Schools Act*.² No reference is made in any of the separate schools Acts to the use of the English language by teachers in separate schools.

23. Brief reference should perhaps be made at this point to a similar commission on German schools. The members were, in fact, those who had previously investigated the French schools. They were appointed as members of the second commission on the 9th of September, 1889, for the following purpose:

... to visit the schools mentioned in the schedule hereto annexed for the purpose of making full and careful enquiry, by personal inspection and any other way they may deem expedient, into the teaching of English in the said Public Schools in which the German language is taught, and the observance of the Regulations of the Education Department generally by teachers, trustees and other school officers therein, and to make full report with regard to the same to the Education Department with all convenient speed.

¹59 Vict., Ch. 70, Sec. 76 (2), S.O.

²R.S.O. 1937, Ch. 357.

The commission was authorized and directed "to consider and report in what way the study of English may be most successfully promoted among those accustomed to the use of the German language as their mother tongue . . ."

24. Unlike French, German was a subject of study only. The commissioners did not make any specific recommendations on the training of teachers or on a series of German-English readers. They merely stated that a series of German readers should be authorized. However, in commenting on the use of the German language, they stated:

It is usually left to the parents to decide whether their children shall learn German or not. Of the 2,412 German children on the roll in the schools visited, only 602 were learning German, and of the 483 English children only 56 were learning German . . . The teaching of German consists almost entirely of reading and writing with some translation. German grammar is taught in only four schools. All the subjects on the Public School programme are taught in the English language and German is taught in every case as a separate subject . . . The learning of German does not seem to have interfered with the progress of the pupils in English or in other subjects.

In their general remarks, they noted:

While the people retain their attachment to their mother tongue and in many cases desire it to be taught to their children, they recognize the necessity of an English education in this country and give every encouragement to the obtaining of it.

The transition from German to English which has been going on for many years is facilitated by the similarity between the two languages, and by the fact that the German settlements are limited in extent and surrounded by English-speaking people.

The commissioners found that the knowledge of English possessed by German children upon entry to school was generally satisfactory. They wrote:

It was stated to your Commissioners that many came with no knowledge of English whatever, but we found on examination that the number of such was comparatively small, and that in most cases the pupils possessed a sufficient vocabulary of English to enable them to make a beginning in their school work . . .

25. With reference to the use of German in schools, Sissons wrote in 1917:

What is the situation today? German is still taught in many school sections where the majority of the ratepayers speak that language, but to an extent which interferes little, if at all, with the general work of the school. In most of the elementary schools of Waterloo County a half-hour each day is given to the study of the vernacular, but in Berlin, now Kitchener, even that has been abandoned as interfering unduly with the general work and organization of the large city schools. A large number of students of German origin have found their way through the high schools and universities. Indeed the language difficulty in German districts in Ontario was solved 25 years ago, at a time when . . . the Province had barely awakened to the realization of its existence among the French.¹

¹C. B. Sissons, *Bi-lingual Schools in Canada*, pp. 33-34.

No German is taught, nor is it used as a language of instruction and communication, in the elementary schools of Ontario today.

26. In 1895 the Board of Separate School Trustees of the City of Ottawa asked for a commission to examine and report upon the condition of the separate schools in that city, and to enquire into certain charges made against Inspector White by Rev. Brother Flamien, representing the Christian Brothers teaching in the schools. The commissioners reported that when they had arrived at St. Patrick's School, Ottawa, Brother Director Mark had informed them "that 'his higher superiors had given instructions that he was not to allow the Commissioners to examine the classes'". When La Salle School was visited, Brother Director Philadelphus was reported to have said that "he had orders not to allow the inquiry in this school". After returning later to the same school, the commissioners reported that they had been informed by Brother Philadelphus that "'As soon as the commissioners entered a room, the brother in charge would leave his class. The pupils would be allowed to remain and be at the disposal of the Commissioners. Nothing would be said to them (pupils) to set them against the Commissioners. The teacher would not answer any questions the Commissioners might ask him. He (teacher) would give them no information regarding his class. In fact, the resistance to the inquiry meant everything short of using force'". Apparently the teachers acted under a general direction, since the same order "had been issued to all the Brothers in the city". Later, the direction was withdrawn and the commission was permitted to proceed with its investigations. The commissioners reported: "After the withdrawal of the order to resist the Commission the Brother Directors in charge of the schools and each teacher under them gave every assistance possible to aid the Commissioners in the prosecution of their inquiry."

27. In discussing the teaching of English to French pupils in the boys' schools, the commissioners stated:

From a consideration of all the facts and from a careful examination of the French Schools the Commissioners can come to no other conclusion than that there is no attempt worthy of the name made to teach English in the boys' schools.

The teaching is largely giving to the pupil written forms, whose sounds when spoken by him convey no idea to his mind.

If the instructions of the Education Department with reference to the teaching of English were followed, and a teacher capable of teaching English employed for every class, the text-books for translation could be laid aside, and the pupils would learn more English in six months than many of them know now after having been at least four years at school.

For the girls' schools, however, the commissioners reported: "The reading and literature in all the classes were quite satisfactory. Many read with excellent expression, and nearly all understood the meaning of what was read."

In their summary, under "Teaching and Teachers", the commissioners commented with reference to the Christian Brothers:

The inadequate knowledge and the frequent mistakes in English of even the English speaking teachers, showed that in many cases the literary qualifications of these teachers was not what it should be.

The Commissioners believe, that, as regards the purpose of education and the means of securing it, the Brothers are not familiar with modern methods of teaching.

28. At a meeting held for the purpose of investigating the charges against Inspector White, the Rev. Brother Flamien stated "that the Brothers did not oppose the Commission as coming from the Government but as coming at the request of the Board of Trustees." He went on to state "that neither he nor his subordinate, Brother Gemel-Martyr, had any charges to make against Mr. Inspector White. Had he any charges to make he would make them to the Minister of Education, who is the proper authority." Similarly, the secretary of the general board, the chairman of the board, and the chairman of each of the sections also stated "that no charge had been preferred to the Board against Mr. Inspector White." The commission then adjourned the meeting; no further comment regarding the charges was made.

29. Sixteen years later, following representations made to the Department of Education that children attending French schools were learning neither English nor French, Fallon, Roman Catholic bishop of London, condemned the attempt to teach both languages in the same classroom. On October 17, 1911, he issued a statement on the matter at Goderich. He said in his conclusion:

This whole question is not a contest between English-speaking and French-speaking Catholics; it is a matter of great public moment. On the one side of the discussion are a certain number of French-Canadians led by noisy agitators; on the other side are also French-Canadians in no small numbers, together with the rest of the population of the Province of Ontario, without distinction of creed or nationality. And let me hazard the prophecy that when this second division awakes to the gravity of the situation it will make short work of an alleged bi-lingual school system which teaches neither English nor French, encourages incompetency, gives a prize to hypocrisy, and breeds ignorance.¹

30. In 1910 F. W. Merchant was commissioned to investigate and report upon the English-French schools of the province, both public and separate. He reported² in February, 1912. His general conclusion was:

It is evident from an examination of the results of all the tests applied that the English-French schools are, on the whole, lacking in efficiency. The tests combine to show that a large proportion of the children in the communities concerned leave school to meet the demands of life with an inadequate equipment in education.

31. In listing the causes of inefficiency of schools, Merchant drew attention to the difficulties of the bilingual situation:

¹C. B. Sissons, *Bi-lingual Schools in Canada*, p. 80.

²F. W. Merchant, *Report on the Condition of English-French Schools in the Province of Ontario*, Toronto: King's Printer, 1912.

Children have learned to understand and to speak one language, and they are required, in addition, to master the ordinary subjects of the Public School Course of Study, to learn another language, and to become so proficient in it that, in a reasonable time, it may be made the means of communication and the medium of instruction.

He spoke also of irregularities in attendance and of the preponderance of teachers with certificates "of the lower grades":

There can be no doubt whatever but that the efficiency of the English-French Schools is seriously lowered by the employment of such a large proportion of teachers holding certificates of the lower grades. The depressing effects are intensified by the constant changes which take place in the staffs of the schools. The table giving the length of service of the teachers employed shows that nearly 60 per cent. of the total number of teachers have been in their present positions less than one year.

After pointing out the lack of opportunities for attending school for children in small isolated communities in the territorial districts, Merchant drew particular attention to "Uncertainty Regarding the Relation of the Regulations of the Department of Education to the Roman Catholic Separate Schools". By way of illustration, he reported the following:

The principal of a large graded school was asked why she did not have the law respecting the use of English as the language of instruction observed in her school. She replied that the provisions of the Public Schools Act and the Regulations of the Department of Education do not apply to Roman Catholic Separate Schools . . .

Merchant stated later in his report:

Nevertheless, the impression that those in control of Roman Catholic Separate Schools are working under freer conditions respecting the course of study, the language of instruction, and the use of text-books, than those in charge of Public Schools, prevails. Indirectly, this impression has been one of the chief factors in limiting the use of English in English-French Roman Catholic Separate Schools in Eastern Ontario and the Districts, because the teachers in these schools have not been made to feel that they were under obligations or bound by regulations to endeavour to make it the language of instruction.

32. He listed the conditions which, in his opinion, promoted efficiency. He drew attention to the language of instruction:

The best results are obtained when the medium of instruction is in the beginning the mother-tongue. Life in the ordinary school is so different from the life of the home that the child on entrance to school finds himself in a strange and perplexing environment . . .

In discussing the transition from the use of French to the use of English as a language of instruction and communication, Merchant stated:

The time when English should be used continuously as the language of instruction depends on the ability of the student and the language conditions of the locality in which the school is situated. Where English is spoken quite generally in a community and by the children on the playground, young children learn in a surprisingly short time sufficient English to follow the school lessons . . .

And again,

When a fair amount of attention is given to English conversation, reading and composition, and reasonable pains are taken to introduce English gradually as the language of instruction in Forms I and II, all subjects, with the exception, of course, of French, are taught successfully through English in Form III . . .

Some of the teachers I met argued somewhat strongly for the retention of French as the language of instruction throughout the course . . . These teachers would continue English as a subject of study to the end of the course. The results, in so far as the learning of English is concerned, condemn the plan. Wherever the method is followed, the pupils' attainments in English are unsatisfactory . . .

33. With reference to the organization of schools, he reported:

The organization which gives, on the whole, the most satisfactory results requires the pupil to remain three years in Form I and two years in Form II, during which time English is made gradually to replace French as the medium of instruction. At the end of this period the most backward pupil should have sufficient command of the language to follow with comparative ease lessons conducted in English.

He thought that in schools attended by both English-speaking and French-speaking pupils, which he believed offered the French-speaking child the best opportunity of learning English, it was advisable to teach the English-speaking and French-speaking pupils separately in forms I and II; but that, beginning with form III, the classes should be combined. He condemned as wasteful of time the system adopted in some schools of having parallel classes throughout all grades.

34. Merchant emphasized that English could be used in giving commands, directions, etc. in the ordinary routine of the school, and that little ones of 5 or 6 years of age could soon learn to follow the general directions of the teacher. In discussing textbooks, he recommended that "A manual of method for teachers covering the whole field of the teaching of English to French-speaking pupils would assist them materially. It should contain a detailed outline of work for each of the lower grades with illustrative lessons and discussion of methods." He pointed out that the English-French readers did not meet modern requirements, and recommended that a new series of French readers, with modern selections, arrangements, and illustrations, should be adopted. Reporting upon the teaching of French in relation to the high school entrance examination, he wrote:

It is evident, therefore, that in some schools the study of French is interfering with the results in the Entrance Examinations and in others that the Entrance Examination is displacing the study of French. It would appear that, under present conditions, the two can be combined only through some readjustment of the requirements of the Entrance Examination which would shorten the course for those who study French.

35. Merchant paid particular attention to the supply of teachers and indicated his belief that: "The chief obstacle in the way of the improvement and the maintenance of the English-French Schools is the difficulty

of securing an adequate supply of competent teachers . . .” He thought that it was comparatively easy to organize and to perfect training schools, but that it was an entirely different question to secure an adequate supply of students to be trained in them. He found that while only a relatively small proportion of French-speaking children attended high school the demand for young people with bilingual training was great in other fields. The most promising source for obtaining an increased supply of prospective teachers in Eastern Ontario was the fifth classes in the small centres of population. The graduates of the English-French training schools at Ottawa and Sturgeon Falls were teaching in Eastern and Northern Ontario, not in the southern and south-western parts of the province. He did not particularly favour training schools of this type, since they provided only “for teachers of the lowest grade of training”. He thought that the “key to the permanent solution of the problem can be found only in the closer connection of the English-French Schools with the High School system of the Province”. In his opinion, the efficiency of teachers holding temporary certificates might be improved through training in summer schools.

36. Merchant stressed what he called “the influence of the inspector in determining the character of the work in the schools”. He concluded that: “One of the most effective means, therefore, of improving conditions in the English-French Schools is to increase very materially the provisions for inspection in these schools.”

37. Merchant’s report was the basis upon which the government framed “Instructions 17”, which were adopted in June, 1912. Actually, these regulations appeared as a “Circular of Instructions for the School Year, September to June 1912-13”. They were revised in August, 1913, in answer to criticisms and to implement suggestions advanced by the inspectors of English-French schools, and remained in force until the 31st of December, 1944, when they automatically expired, owing to lack of registration as required under *The Regulations Act*.¹

38. In view of their importance, we deem it advisable to reproduce, as appendices A and B of this chapter, “Instructions 17” as issued in 1912, and the amended version as issued in 1913.

39. The French people of Ontario regarded these regulations, even as amended in 1913, as a direct attack upon their language and an attempt to force them to learn English. Even those who desired their children to learn English resented the arbitrary tone of the document. Opposition developed to such a point that in some schools the inspector responsible for the supervision of instruction in English was refused admittance; in others the pupils walked out of the school upon his entrance. Indeed, on the 11th of September, 1914, every separate school in Ottawa was closed. The teachers were discharged (illegally) by the chairman of the separate school board, who frankly admitted that his chief object was to create a

¹8 Geo. VI, Ch. 52, S.O.

condition which would compel the Department of Education to consent to the employment of some 23 Christian Brothers who did not possess teaching certificates valid in Ontario. The board, by publishing its resolutions and declarations, further fomented discontent among the school supporters and encouraged insubordination on the part of pupils. Lennox, J., in the case of "*Mackell vs. Ottawa Separate School Trustees*", 1914, described these conditions as "disgraceful and disastrous"¹ and condemned the Ottawa Separate School Board for their "unseemly, unnecessary, and wholly unwarranted action in what amounted to a 'declaration of war,' by posting their defiance of the Department in the class-rooms to thousands of school children, and finally the arbitrary closing of the schools . . ."²

40. The above-mentioned action was brought by R. Mackell and others, who were ratepayers of the City of Ottawa, supporters of Roman Catholic separate schools in that city, and, in some cases, members of the board of trustees, against the board of trustees of the Roman Catholic separate schools for the City of Ottawa for an injunction restraining the defendants (a) from continuing in their employ or paying out of the moneys of the Board the salaries of all teachers in the employ of the defendants not possessing the proper legal qualifications to teach or not authorized to teach according to the provisions of any Act of the Legislature of Ontario or the Regulations of the Department of Education, or who refuse or neglect to conform to or who contravene the regulations; (b) . . . for a mandatory order requiring the defendants to conform to and enforce in the schools under their jurisdiction the said Regulations . . . and . . . for . . . damages . . .³

The defence to the action rested, in substance, upon the contention that Instructions 17 were wholly unauthorized and unwarranted and beyond the powers of the Minister of Education because they were contrary to and in violation of the *British North America Act* of 1867. It was claimed that the regulations violated Sections 91, 92, and 93 of that Act, particularly Section 93 (1), which provides that nothing in any provincial law in relation to education "shall prejudicially affect any right or privilege with respect to denominational schools which any class of persons have by law in the Province at the Union."

41. The action reached the Privy Council.⁴ Mr. Mackell and his associates were successful; and it was held that Instructions 17 and the Act of the Ontario Legislature (5 Geo. V., Ch. 45) passed to confer legislative authority upon it did not prejudicially affect any right or privilege secured by law at Confederation to Roman Catholics in the province; and that the regulations were consequently valid and binding upon the Ottawa Separate School Board.

42. This judgment of the Privy Council is important for other reasons. It contains the following passage:

¹32 *Ontario Law Reports*, p. 248.

²*Ibid.*, p. 258.

³*Ibid.*, pp. 246-247.

⁴The judgment may be found in 1917, *Appeal Cases*, p. 62.

. . . the class of persons to whom the right or privilege is reserved must, in their Lordships' opinion, be a class of persons determined according to *religious belief*, and *not according to race or language*. In relation to denominational teaching, Roman Catholics together form within the meaning of the section a class of persons, and that class cannot be subdivided into other classes by considerations of the language of the people by whom that faith is held . . .¹

43. Their Lordships dealt with "the kind of school" which trustees of either public or separate schools are authorized to provide, pursuant to the provisions of the Common Schools Act of 1859 and the Separate Schools Act of 1863. They stated²

They [the Ottawa Separate School Board] urge that it was a right or privilege possessed [by Trustees] with respect to denominational schools in 1867 in determining the number and kind of schools to say within what limits the French language is to be used; for, according to their contention, "kind of school" means a school where the French language, under the direction of trustees, may be used as a medium of instruction on terms not less favourable than the use of English. Their Lordships are unable to agree with this view. The "kind" of school . . . is, in their opinion, the grade or character of school, for example, "a girls' school," "a boys' school," or "an infants' school," and a "kind" of school . . . is not a school where any special language is in common use.

The schools must be conducted in accordance with the regulations, and their Lordships can find nothing in the Statute to take away from the authority that had power to issue regulations the power of directing in what language education is to be given.

Trustees, their Lordships argued, possess the right to manage the schools under their charge, but "The right to manage does not involve the right of determining the language to be used in the schools."³

44. During the course of this litigation, the Ontario Legislature on July 20, 1915, appointed a commission,⁴ consisting of Denis Murphy, Thomas D'Arcy McGee, and Arthur Charbonneau, to conduct and manage the Roman Catholic separate schools of the City of Ottawa, since the separate school board was unwilling to conduct the said schools according to law. The commission was in charge of the schools until the month of November, 1916, when the Act appointing them was declared *ultra vires* by the Privy Council in the case of "*Ottawa Roman Catholic Separate Schools vs. Ottawa Corporation*", 1916.⁵ But the commission had disbursed certain large sums and borrowed money from banks for the purpose of operating the schools, and, as soon as the Act appointing it had been declared *ultra vires*, the Ottawa Separate School Trustees brought actions to recover these moneys from the members of the commission personally and from the banks. Pending these actions, the Legislature of Ontario passed an Act⁶ which declared, *inter alia*, that the moneys disbursed were proper, and that the Act might be pleaded as a defence to any action brought by the board of separate

¹*Ibid.*, p. 69. Italics ours.

²*Ibid.*, p. 71.

³*Ibid.*, p. 74.

⁴5 Geo. V, Ch. 45, S.O.

⁵86 *Law Journal, Privy Council*, p. 73.

⁶7 Geo. V, Ch. 50, S.O.

school trustees against any person or corporation in respect of the moneys received and disbursed by the commission. The validity of this Act was then attacked by the separate school board, but it was held to be *intra vires* by the Privy Council in the case of "*Trustees of the Roman Catholic Separate Schools for the City of Ottawa vs. Quebec Bank and Others* (the Attorney-General for Ontario intervening)."¹

45. Thus, Instructions 17 went on their tempestuous way, always a source of contention and the subject of expensive litigation. The tragedy was that during this period (to quote part of a report² included in the record of the Mackell case) ". . . While all classes of the French people are not only willing but desirous that their children should learn the English language, they at the same time wish them to retain the use of their own language, and there is no reason why they should not do so . . ."

46. In view of these exasperating and unsatisfactory conditions, the Minister of Education decided in 1925 to have a further investigation made of the schools attended by French-speaking pupils. Dr. F. W. Merchant, Chief Director of Education for Ontario—who had made the enquiry between November, 1910, and February, 1912—Judge Scott of Perth, and Louis Côté, Barrister, of Ottawa were appointed to inquire into the condition of the schools attended by French-speaking pupils and to report upon "the efficiency of the pupils in the English and French languages . . . the efficiency of the schools, means for improving the instruction, and plans for securing a more constant supply of qualified teachers".³

47. The English-French School Enquiry Board, as it was called, made an exhaustive study of the condition of 330 schools containing 843 classrooms, all of which were visited. Of these schools, 215 were "English-French" public and Roman Catholic separate schools under the supervision of special inspectors known as "English-French School Inspectors", and the remainder were public and Roman Catholic separate schools under the regular county, district, or separate school inspectors, in which provision had been made for the teaching of French. The report⁴ was submitted to the Minister on August 26, 1927. Some of the more important findings were:

(1) The number of schools which presented a satisfactory standard of proficiency in both French and English was not large, yet the number was sufficient to indicate the possibility of attaining such a standard. The commissioners stated: "Proficiency in the use of one language is assuredly no barrier to securing equal proficiency in the other if proper methods of organization and instruction are followed".

¹Reported in 1920, 89 *Law Journal, Privy Council*, p. 9.

²Extract from defendant's Exhibit 50, being the *Report of Commissioners on Schools in the Counties of Prescott and Russell in which the French Language is Taught*. (1893).

³Letter of instructions written by Mr. Ferguson, then Minister of Education, to Dr. Merchant, dated October 21, 1925.

⁴*Report of the Committee Appointed to Enquire into the Condition of the Schools Attended by French-speaking Pupils*, Toronto: King's Printer, 1927.

- (2) An adequate standard in arithmetic was found in only 35 per cent of the classes and on the whole the pupils were not well drilled in the fundamentals of that subject.
- (3) Knowledge of history and geography was found to be satisfactory in approximately half the schools.
- (4) The writing of the pupils was satisfactory in approximately 60 per cent of the schools.
- (5) Judged by the proportion of pupils who completed the course (one of the factors determining the efficiency of a school), the schools left much to be desired.
- (6) Judged by the ages of pupils in each form, the situation was more satisfactory. The average age of French-speaking pupils was slightly higher than the average for the corresponding forms in all provincial schools, but, considering the fact that French-speaking pupils required a somewhat longer time to complete the course because of the additional language they had to acquire, the number of "over-age" pupils in schools where French was taught was not unduly greater than that in the other schools of the province.
- (7) There was, on the whole, a low standard of professional qualification among the teachers and consequently a considerable amount of poor teaching. Nevertheless, a large majority of the teachers in the schools where French was taught were trying to give the pupils as good a training as their limitations and the circumstances permitted. Although many of the teachers had a satisfactory command of both English and French, a large number of French-speaking teachers spoke English with a more or less pronounced French accent and with considerable inaccuracy. Fifty-eight teachers had so little English that they were unfit to be teachers in the schools, and 22 of the total number could neither speak nor understand the English language.

48. The recommendations of the Committee for improving conditions in the English-French schools were long and detailed. They showed a more conciliatory attitude and embodied milder procedures than had Instructions 17. In general, the chief remedies suggested by the committee were: proper and adequate inspection of English-French schools; closer personal supervision; and better-trained teachers.

49. The Committee urged the necessity for better instruction in English and French and for improving the general status of the schools, and suggested that this be made the responsibility of two special officers, a Director of English Instruction and a Director of French Instruction, who should, through their reports, keep the Minister of Education informed respecting actual conditions in the schools. The practice prior to 1927 of assigning certain selected schools to special inspectors should, it was suggested, be discontinued. Inspectors with adequate qualifications in both English and

French should be assigned to schools attended by French-speaking pupils, and each inspector should be responsible for only the number of schools to which he could give proper supervision.

50. The Committee was convinced that French-speaking children should have French as a subject of instruction wherever its provision was compatible with the satisfactory instruction of other pupils attending the school; but they were of opinion that no definite rule could be laid down with respect to the proportion or the actual number of French-speaking pupils required to justify the introduction of French as a subject of study in any given school. Pupils in the schools in which French was taught should, on completing the fourth form, have acquired the ability to speak, read, and write the English language with a fair degree of accuracy and facility. No regulation should be made to limit the provisions of *The Public Schools Act* governing the language of instruction and communication in the schools. But the Committee stated that some control was necessary, as many of the teachers, when left to themselves, had made no effort whatever to use English as a language of communication and instruction. The Committee believed "that the only effective means of securing proper restriction and adjustment in respect to the language of instruction is through personal supervision and direction . . ."

51. The Committee was of opinion that the course of study in schools where French was taught should, in essentials, be the same as that required for other public and separate schools, but that the full course was evidently too heavy for French-speaking pupils because of the necessity of learning another language. "It seems to us necessary", they concluded, ". . . that some reductions be made in the curriculum of the schools attended by French speaking children as an option for the additional language", and they found an urgent need for the selection of a new series of textbooks for these schools.

52. For the training of teachers for these schools, they made detailed suggestions regarding certain modified courses adapted directly to the needs of those who were going to teach in the schools attended by French-speaking children, and they pointed out that such courses might be provided "either in the present Normal Schools or in a separate institution established for the purpose". They also suggested that

Inducements must be offered to lead students to enter the schools provided and to continue their training until the higher grade certificates are secured . . .

We suggest that the Department of Education should consider whether the financial support might not now be confined to students taking the Middle School courses that we have proposed at the academic schools maintained by the Department and to those in attendance at the professional courses in the Model and Normal Schools. It might also consider whether financial assistance might not be given in the form of a bonus or otherwise to students who take these Middle School courses at other secondary schools, on the condition, of course, that such students furnish satisfactory guarantee to give service as teachers.

53. The Merchant-Scott-Coté Report of 1927 marked the end of an era. It had been preceded by a period of regulation and of attempted coercion, and had ended in open revolt on the part of many boards of trustees of schools in which French was taught. It was followed by a period of relatively peaceful and orderly development, which witnessed the adoption of many of the recommendations of the Report.

54. The fact that the government had, in effect, accepted the recommendations of the Merchant-Scott-Coté Report may be seen from the following statement by the Minister of Education in his Report for 1927:¹

In 1927, the committee of enquiry, consisting of Dr. F. W. Merchant, Chief Director of Education, His Honour Judge Scott, and Mr. Louis Coté, appointed to deal with the question of the language instruction in schools attended by French-speaking pupils, concluded their labors. Their unanimous report, based upon an exhaustive study of the whole situation, was widely circulated and met with general approval. This is an old problem in educational administration, since for more than forty years various and different methods have been tried with the design of finding a satisfactory solution. The committee's investigation convinced them that previous methods to train the children in these schools as they have a right to be trained, and as the interests of the Province demand, had not met with success. The conclusion they reached was that in future more reliance must be placed upon sympathetic and helpful advice and supervision and efficient teaching rather than upon some general rules which do not, and cannot, provide for the great variety of conditions that exist. It was, therefore, resolved to restore the old classification of elementary schools which had been in force in the Province for generations, that is, Public Schools and Separate Schools, and to cease regarding a certain number of them as entitled to a classification by themselves based on language distinction. After the opening of the schools in the autumn, therefore, the new plan went into force and the Inspectors were instructed, without the adoption of some fresh uniform regulations that would not adequately apply to individual schools, to make a study of each case, as circumstances required, and to consult with a departmental committee to determine the course that ought to be followed. This committee consists of a Director of English Instruction and a Director of French Instruction who were appointed to maintain a constant personal contact with the schools, making a continuous study of the conditions and the requirements of each school, so that they will at all times be fully qualified to aid and advise pupils, teachers, and school boards in carrying on their work. These two Directors, along with the Chief Inspector of the Province and the local inspector, constitute a common authority, subject in all respects to the Minister, for dealing with all important matters bearing upon schools, and more particularly with peculiar cases and unusual conditions. It is my intention to keep in close touch with the inspection and supervision of these schools, so as to make sure that the proper policy is being pursued in each case, and that with the willing co-operation of both English and French-speaking people, the official language of the Province will be properly taught.

The government did not, however, issue any new regulations; as we noted previously, the original regulations remained in force for many years. In the following year, the Minister of Education reported:²

¹*Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1927*, pp. vii and viii.

²*Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1928*, p. x.

The new plan of dealing with the schools attended by French-speaking pupils, which was adopted after the presentation of the Report of the Committee of Inquiry which investigated these schools in 1927, is now in the second year of operation. While it is as yet too early to speak in positive terms as to its results, the experiment shows encouraging signs of success. The universal desire on the part of French-speaking parents to have their children acquire English, the sympathetic support of the Departmental plans by school boards, the energetic co-operative effort on the part of teachers, inspectors, and training school staffs are factors in the situation that promise well for the future.

The Minister went on to state: "No effort is being spared by the Department to promote the efficiency of both the future and the present teachers"; and he outlined the steps which had been taken for the training of teachers in normal and model schools and in summer schools and for supervision through the inspectors and through the Director of English Instruction and the Director of French Instruction.

55. In the *Report of the Minister of Education* for 1936, Mr. A. J. Beneteau, then Director of French Instruction, reported as follows:

Since 1927, the schools attended by French-speaking pupils have been operating in accordance with the recommendations made in the Merchant-Scott-Coté Report. Each year, marked progress has been noted in the ability of the pupils to use both languages and in their better mastery of the subjects on the course of study. When it is realized that a system of education which embraces the study of two languages must necessarily evolve slowly, the progress achieved in the short space of nine years has been remarkable.

56. The influence of the Merchant-Scott-Coté Report was equally striking in other directions. In referring to the distinction made between English-French public and separate schools and other public and separate schools in which French was a subject of study, the Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee wrote:

We know of no reason for continuing to maintain the distinction between these classes in the case of either the public or the separate schools. The separation does not make for either economy or efficiency of supervision . . . Moreover, the setting up of a class of schools which is parallel with both the public and the separate schools, which in reality includes schools that belong to both systems, and to which certain privileges and restrictions apply, has led to serious confusion in organization and administration . . .

The Committee recommended:

We are of opinion, therefore, that the present practice of assigning certain selected schools to special inspectors might be discontinued without loss to the schools concerned. The particular designation, English-French, implying as it does a special type of school with special privileges or restrictions, should be dropped, and all elementary schools, whether attended by English-speaking or by French-speaking pupils should be placed in either one of the two categories—Public School or Roman Catholic Separate School. All inspectors should be put on the same footing and subject to the same directions by the Department of Education. Inspectors with adequate qualifications in both English and French should, of course, be assigned to schools attended by French-speaking pupils . . .

57. Since 1927 the classification "English-French schools" has been changed to that of public or separate schools "in which French is a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister of Education". It is an anomaly that, although the approval is only to "introduce French as a subject of instruction", in practice, French is used exclusively as the language of instruction and communication in the earlier grades, and is used in common with English in higher grades. In the organization of classes, it is now apparently the common practice to set up parallel schools, or parallel classes, for English-speaking and French-speaking pupils, rather than, as was originally done, mixed classes of English-speaking and French-speaking pupils.

58. The Merchant-Scott-Coté Report recommended ". . . two special officers to be appointed by the Department of Education, a Director of English Instruction, and a Director of French Instruction. The duty of these officers should be to keep themselves constantly in touch with the schools in all parts of the Province, to study all phases of the problems presented, and to co-operate with inspectors and teachers in setting up standards and devising ways and means to make instruction effective. In addition, the directors should, by their reports, keep the Minister of Education continuously informed respecting actual conditions in the schools." On October 5, 1927, W. J. Karr, B.A., D.Paed., was appointed Director of English Instruction at a salary of \$4,800 per annum, and A. J. Beneteau, B.A., was appointed Director of French Instruction at a salary of \$4,400 per annum. They had been secretaries to the Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee and continued to work in harmony for the betterment of education in the schools attended by French-speaking pupils. In 1934 Dr. Karr was appointed Director of Professional Training. By Order-in-Council dated the 18th day of June, 1934, Alexander Burton Lucas, B.A., B.Paed., was appointed Director of English Instruction at a salary of \$4,400 per annum; but before he assumed his duties a new government came into power. On the recommendation of the new Minister of Education, dated the 27th day of November, 1934, the appointment of Mr. Lucas was rescinded, and the position has remained vacant since that date although an Acting Director of English Instruction has held office for a short time.¹

59. Although Dr. Beneteau, who as an educator and through his knowledge of both English and French was eminently qualified for the position, continued conscientiously and efficiently to discharge his duties as Director of French Instruction, in May, 1937, he was appointed to the position of master, University of Ottawa Normal School, at a salary of \$3,800 per annum. As Director of French Instruction, he had been receiving a salary of \$5,000 per annum. No explanation of this official transfer of Dr. Beneteau and of the substantial and unjustified decrease in his salary was given to us, although the information was sought. By Order-in-Council dated April

¹See Chapter XVII.

29, 1937, Robert Gauthier, B.A., was appointed Director of French Instruction at a salary of \$4,600 per annum. His salary as a separate school inspector prior to this appointment had been \$3,600 per year.

60. Before 1927, teachers for the schools attended by French-speaking children were trained in one of four ways. A few were trained through the Ontario College of Education, open only to university graduates. A few more received their training through normal schools. Some attended the English-French model schools at Sandwich, Sturgeon Falls, and Van-kleek Hill, in a course of study extending over a period of one year. Those who had been granted temporary certificates without professional training attended summer school. As previously noted, the Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee recommended that the normal school courses for First and Second Class certificates be adapted "more directly to the needs of those who are to teach in the schools attended by French-speaking children". They suggested also that "Such modified courses might be provided for either in the present Normal Schools or in a separate institution established for the purpose". After outlining necessary adaptations of courses in methods of teaching English and the addition of courses in the methods of teaching French, the Committee suggested "that certain options be allowed French-speaking candidates in both the entrance requirements and the course of study at the Normal Schools". They pointed out that the existing courses in French for the matriculation examination did not test the "kind of proficiency in French which French-speaking students offering themselves as teachers should possess"; and they suggested that the courses and examination in French language and literature "should be made similar in character to those set in English Language and Literature for English-speaking students", and that "the Department of Education take into consideration the advisability of approving of courses in French of the type we have just described to be optional with the authorities of secondary schools in French-speaking areas". The purposes of these special courses in French in the secondary schools were: to bring the secondary schools in closer touch with the elementary schools; to provide for continuous training in French; to provide the proper kind of training for those who wished to become teachers in schools attended by French-speaking children; and to induce a larger number of French-speaking students to enter secondary schools. It was thought that the "universities might be persuaded to accept standing in these courses in lieu of the present requirements in French for Matriculation"; and it was suggested that the academic courses which at that time were offered in connection with the English-French model schools be extended to cover the requirements for entrance into normal school. After discussing the advisability of providing bonuses or other financial assistance to induce French-speaking students to continue their courses and enter normal school, the Committee recommended that certain courses for teacher training should be discontinued: "first, the summer schools;

second, the Grade C courses at the Model Schools; and last, the Grade B courses at the Model Schools”.

61. An additional provincial teacher training institution, known as the University of Ottawa Normal School, was established at Ottawa under an agreement of October 22nd, 1927, between the Minister of Education and the Corporation of the University of Ottawa; it was to be a separate institution for the training of prospective teachers for schools in which French was a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister. The first session of the new normal school was held during the school year 1928-29. Financial assistance was granted to students in attendance. The summer school courses for teachers holding a temporary certificate appear to have been discontinued as of 1927, and special French model schools as of 1934-35. “In September, 1938”, Beneteau stated in his report for the year 1936-37, “the minimum requirements for teaching in these schools will be Second Class Certificates.”¹

62. Enrolment in the University of Ottawa Normal School increased rapidly: in the year 1928-29 the school had an enrolment of 14 students in the Second Class course; in the following year it had 45 students, including 8 in the First Class course; and in 1932-33 it had 197 students, of whom 32 were in the First Class course. The enrolment increased steadily to a maximum of 220 in 1936-37, and then decreased slowly but steadily (as did the enrolment in other normal schools) to a low of 97 in 1944-45. In 1948-49 the total enrolment was 152 students, of whom 17 were enrolled in the First Class course.

63. The qualifications of teachers employed in elementary schools in which French was a subject of instruction improved steadily following the establishment of the University of Ottawa Normal School. In 1926-27 approximately 44 per cent of such teachers held no valid teaching certificate; 33.5 per cent held Third Class certificates; 9.25 per cent held temporary certificates; and little more than 13 per cent held First or Second Class certificates. In 1932-33 less than 2 per cent of the teachers held no valid certificates; 38 per cent held Third Class certificates; and more than 42 per cent held First or Second Class certificates. The percentage of teachers holding temporary certificates, however, increased to approximately 18 per cent. By 1939 more than 91 per cent of the teachers in these schools held First or Second Class certificates. This latter percentage decreased somewhat during the war years, but in 1948 it was still 87 per cent. The vast majority of teachers in this group, however, held Second Class certificates.

64. Courses of study and examinations in “schools attended by French-speaking pupils” were first outlined in a circular² approved by Order-in-

¹*Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1936, p. 31.*

²The 1948 edition, known as Circular 46, is entitled “Courses of Study and Examinations in Schools attended by French-speaking Pupils”.

Council on January 31, 1928. The courses included those up to and including middle school. The revised edition of August, 1928, added prescriptions for upper school French literature and composition for the examinations of the summer of 1929. Papers in special French literature and composition were first included in the middle school examinations in 1928, and were written by 70 and 80 candidates, respectively. In 1929, upper school examinations in special French literature and composition were introduced, and were written by 72 and 81 candidates, respectively.

65. In view of the generally unsatisfactory conditions as reported by the Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee, it is of interest to note that the Directors of English and French Instruction reported,¹ on June 26, 1933, that substantial progress had been made. With reference to English reading, their comment was: "It will be noted that there has been a considerable and uniform advance all along the line." Concerning English conversation and oral composition, they observed: "It is apparent that striking advance has been made in this phase of the work. Oral English is begun at the child's entry into school, and systematic training in conversation and free expression is given throughout his whole school career." In regard to written composition, they stated: "the improvement . . . in Forms III and IV has not altogether kept pace with the improvement in oral expression, and the character of the work in this sphere leaves as yet much to be desired." Referring to the ability of pupils to speak English in their last school year, they reported: "It will be observed . . . that in 1927, in only about one-third of the schools were the pupils in the last school year able to speak English satisfactorily, while in 1933 the proportion had advanced to more than one-half. But a still more striking evidence of improvement is found in the fact that in 1927 in more than one-third of the schools the pupils in the last year had no ability to speak English, while in 1933 there was not found a single school that could be so designated." In reporting upon the ability of pupils to write English in their last school year, they said: "A substantial improvement over 1927 may be noted in the first two groups of schools. In 1927 the written English was fair or good in 56 per cent. of the schools, poor in 34 per cent., and entirely absent in 10 per cent. In 1933, the written English was fair or good in 70 per cent. of the schools visited, poor in 30 per cent., and entirely lacking in none." They reported similar progress in French reading, written French, and oral French. In arithmetic, history, geography, and writing, however, the results did not show improvement to the same extent, particularly in rural schools. In concluding their special report, the Directors referred to the number of successful French-speaking candidates at the high school entrance examination, pointing out that in 1929 only 2.5 per cent of the total enrolment were successful, as compared with 3.8 per cent in 1932. The general conclusion of the two Directors was as follows:

¹*Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1932, pp. 22-33.*

Progress towards excellence in any field of endeavour is necessarily slow and gradual. This is as true of the schools attended by French-speaking pupils as of every other human enterprise. That there has been substantial improvement is undoubted. That there has been progress beyond the expectations of those who knew the conditions six years ago is equally beyond question. Though many defects still remain to be remedied, there are many features in the situation which inspire an optimistic outlook for the future . . .

66. The Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee drew attention to the fact that a very large proportion of the pupils in these elementary schools were in the first and second forms and, in particular, in the first form. Statistics show that in 1927 approximately 46 per cent of the pupils in elementary schools in which French was a subject of instruction were in the first form. As a result of special efforts to remedy the situation, by 1938 the proportion enrolled in the first form had been reduced to approximately 38 per cent; and between 1938 and 1939 it was further reduced to 32.5 per cent. Apparently a reclassification of pupils in the first two forms was made in 1938 or 1939. Since that time the proportion of pupils in various grades has remained relatively constant, and is now not markedly different from that in other elementary schools.

67. In 1927 approximately 500 French-speaking pupils were taking work beyond form IV (grade VIII). In 1937 Beneteau reported:

It is very gratifying to state that a large percentage of the pupils pursue their studies beyond Form IV. There are 1,544 pupils enrolled in Form V classes; 800 are taking the Lower, Middle, and Upper School courses in High Schools in which the special French course has been established; approximately 500 are taking these same courses in private schools and colleges . . .

A comparison of the figures for the two years shows an increase of 500 per cent in the number of pupils taking work beyond form IV in the decade under review.

68. In the concluding paragraph of this chapter, it is appropriate to present a further quotation from A. J. Beneteau, Director of French Instruction, written on April 5, 1937:¹

To those who are conversant with the conditions as revealed by the 1925-27 report on the schools, the progress accomplished during the past few years is a source of great satisfaction. For this improvement, the Department is deeply indebted to the teachers, the inspectors, and the staff of the University of Ottawa Normal School, who have all worked conscientiously towards the great objective of having the French-speaking pupils of this Province acquire an education which, while meeting the wishes of their parents, will enable them to work and live in harmony and friendship with their English-speaking compatriots . . .

¹*Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1936, p. 34.*

APPENDIX A

Instructions 17

3,000—June, 1912

ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOLS AND ENGLISH-FRENCH
PUBLIC AND SEPARATE SCHOOLS*Circular of Instructions*

For the School Year September to June, 1912-1913

PUBLIC AND ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOLS

1. (1) There are only two classes of Primary Schools in Ontario—Public Schools and Separate Schools; but, for convenience of reference, the term English-French is applied to those schools of each class in which French is the language of instruction and communication as limited in 3 (1) below, or is a subject of study in Forms I-IV as limited in 4 below.

(2) As far as practicable, before the close of the school year of 1912-13, the status of all schools attended by French-speaking pupils shall be decided in accordance with the definition in (1) above.

2. The Regulations and Courses of Study prescribed for the Public Schools, which are not inconsistent with the provisions of this circular, shall hereafter be in force in the Separate Schools—English and English-French—with the following modifications: The provisions for religious instruction and exercises in Public Schools shall not apply to Separate Schools, and Separate School Boards may substitute the Canadian Catholic Readers for the Ontario Public School Readers.

ENGLISH-FRENCH PUBLIC AND ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOLS

3. Subject, in the case of each school, to the direction and approval of the Supervising Inspector, the following modifications shall also be made in the course of study of the Public and Separate Schools:

The Use of French for Instruction and Communication

(1) Where necessary in the case of French-speaking pupils, French may be used as the language of instruction and communication; but such use of French shall not be continued beyond Form I, excepting during the school year of 1912-13, when it may also be used as the language of instruction and communication in the case of pupils beyond Form I who, owing to previous defective training, are unable to speak and understand the English language.

Special Course in English for French-Speaking Pupils

(2) In the case of French-speaking pupils who are unable to speak and understand the English language well enough for the purposes of instruction and communication, the following provision is hereby made:

(a) As soon as the pupil enters the school he shall begin the study and the use of the English language.

NOTE.—Before the schools open in September, 1912, a Manual of Method for use in teaching English to French-speaking pupils will be distributed amongst the schools by the Department of Education.

(b) As soon as the pupil has acquired sufficient facility in the use of the English language he shall take up in that language the course of study as prescribed for the Public and Separate Schools.

French as a Subject of Study in Public and Separate Schools

4. For the school year of 1912-13, in schools where French has hitherto been a subject of study, the Public or the Separate School Board, as the case may be, may provide, under the following conditions, for instruction in French Reading, Grammar, and Composition in Forms I to IV [see also provision for Form V in Public School Regulations 14 (5)]¹ in addition to the subjects prescribed for the Public and Separate Schools:

(1) Such instruction in French may be taken only by pupils whose parents or guardians direct that they shall do so.

(2) Such instruction in French shall not interfere with the adequacy of the instruction in English, and the provision for such instruction in French in the time-table of the school shall be subject to the approval and direction of the Supervising Inspector and shall not in any day exceed one hour in each class-room.

(3) Where, as permitted above for the school year of 1912-13 French is a subject of study in a Public or a Separate School, the text-books in use during the school year of 1911-12, in French Reading, Grammar, and Composition shall remain authorized for use during the School year of 1912-1913.

Inspection of English-French Schools

5. For the purpose of inspection, the English-French schools shall be organized into three divisions, each division being under the charge of a Supervising Inspector and an Inspector.

6. (1) In conducting the work of inspection, the supervising Inspector and the Inspector of a division shall alternately visit each school therein.

(2) Each Divisional Inspector shall pay at least 220 half day visits during the year in accordance with the provisions of Public School Regulation 20, (2), and it shall be the duty of each Inspector to pay as many more visits than the minimum as the circumstances may demand.

7. Each two Divisional Inspectors shall reside at such centre or centres in their inspectorates as may be designated by the Minister.

8. Frequently during the year the two Divisional Inspectors shall meet together in order to discuss questions that may arise in their work and to standardize the system of inspection. For the same purposes all the Supervising Inspectors shall meet at such times and places as may be designated by the Minister.

9. (1) While each Divisional Inspector shall report upon the general condition of all the classes, the Supervising Inspector shall be held responsible chiefly for the efficiency of the instruction in English and the other Inspector for the efficiency of the instruction in French.

(2) The Supervising Inspector shall have the sole control of the organization of each school so far as is provided in 3 and 4 (2), above.

10. If either of the Divisional Inspectors finds that any Regulation or Instruction of the Department or the organization of the school as approved and directed by the Supervising Inspector is not being properly carried out, he shall have the power to order the necessary amendment to take effect as soon as he may deem it expedient, reporting specially on such cases to the Minister from time to time as the urgency and the character of the case may demand.

11. Each Divisional Inspector shall forward a copy of his ordinary inspectional report on the prescribed official form to the Minister and to the Secretary of the School Board within one week after the visit.

12. Next September, as soon as the principal, or teacher, of a school has made out the time-table thereof, he or she shall send a certified copy to the Super-

¹Brackets in the original.

vising Inspector of the division to which the school belongs, for approval by him until his visit of inspection. At the same time the principal, or teacher, shall forward to the Supervising Inspector a statement showing the number in attendance in each Form of English and French-speaking pupils respectively.

NOTE.—Before next September, each School Board and each principal, or teacher, will be notified by the Minister of the division to which the school belongs and the names of the Divisional Inspectors.

Teachers' Certificates for English-French Schools

13. (1) After June, 1912, no teacher shall be granted a certificate to teach in English-French schools who does not possess a knowledge of the English language sufficient to teach the Public School Course.

(2) After June, 1912, no teacher shall remain in office or be appointed in any of said schools who does not possess a knowledge of the English language sufficient to teach the Public School Course of study.

Legislative Grants to the English-French Schools

14. The Legislative Grants to the English-French schools shall be made on the same conditions as are the grants to the other Public and Separate Schools, but no grant shall be made to any English-French school which does not provide teachers with the qualification specified in 13 (1) above.

15. On due application from the School Board and on the report of all the Divisional Inspectors, an English-French school which is unable to provide the salary necessary to secure a teacher with the aforesaid qualifications shall receive a special grant in order to assist it in doing so.

Department of Education, June, 1912.

APPENDIX B

Instructions 17

3,000—August, 1913

ENGLISH-FRENCH PUBLIC AND SEPARATE SCHOOLS

Circular of Instructions

1. There are only two classes of Primary Schools in Ontario—Public Schools and Separate Schools; but, for convenience of reference, the term English-French is applied to those schools of each class annually designated by the Minister for inspection as provided in 5 below and in which French is a language of instruction and communication as limited in 3 (1) below.

2. The Regulations and Courses of Study prescribed for the Public Schools, which are not inconsistent with the provisions of this circular, shall hereafter be in force in the English-French Schools—Public and Separate—with the following modifications: The provisions for religious instruction and exercises in Public Schools shall not apply to Separate Schools, and Separate School Boards may substitute the Canadian Catholic Readers for the Ontario Public School Readers.

3. Subject, in the case of each school, to the direction and approval of the Chief Inspector, the following modifications shall also be made in the course of study of the Public and Separate Schools:

The Use of French for Instruction and Communication

(1) Where necessary in the case of French-speaking pupils, French may be used as the language of instruction and communication; but such use of French shall not be continued beyond Form I, excepting that, on the approval

of the Chief Inspector, it may also be used as the language of instruction and communication in the case of pupils beyond Form I who are unable to speak and understand the English language.

Special Course in English for French-Speaking Pupils

(2) In the case of French-speaking pupils who are unable to speak and understand the English language well enough for the purposes of instruction and communication, the following provision is hereby made:

(a) As soon as the pupil enters the school he shall begin the study and the use of the English language.

NOTE.—A Manual of Method for use in teaching English to French-speaking pupils has been distributed amongst the schools by the Department of Education. This Manual should be used in all schools. Where necessary copies may be procured on application to the Deputy Minister.

(b) As soon as the pupil has acquired sufficient facility in the use of the English language he shall take up in that language the course of study as prescribed for the Public and Separate Schools.

French as a Subject of Study in Public and Separate Schools

4. In schools where French has hitherto been a subject of study, the Public or the Separate School Board, as the case may be, may provide, under the following conditions, for instruction in French Reading, Grammar, and Composition in Forms I to IV [see also provision for Form V in Public School Regulation 14 (5)]¹ in addition to the subjects prescribed for the Public and Separate Schools:

(1) Such instruction in French may be taken only by pupils whose parents or guardians direct that they shall do so, and may, notwithstanding 3 (1) above be given in the French language.

(2) Such instruction in French shall not interfere with the adequacy of the instruction in English, and the provision for such instruction in French in the time-table of the school shall be subject to the approval and direction of the Chief Inspector and shall not in any day exceed one hour in each class-room, except where the time is increased upon the order of the Chief Inspector.

(3) Where, as permitted above French is a subject of study in a Public or a Separate School, the text-books in use during the school year of 1911-1912, in French Reading, Grammar, and Composition remain authorized for use during the School year of 1913-1914.

Inspection of English-French Schools

5. For the purpose of inspection, the English-French schools shall be organized into divisions, each division being under the charge of two Inspectors.

6. (1) In conducting the work of inspection, the Inspectors of a division shall alternately visit each school therein, unless otherwise directed by the Chief Inspector.

(2) Each Inspector shall pay at least 220 half day visits during the year in accordance with the provisions of Public School Regulation 20, (2), and it shall be the duty of each Inspector to pay as many more visits than the minimum as the circumstances may demand.

7. Each two Inspectors of a division shall reside at such centre or centres as may be designated by the Minister.

8. Frequently during the year the two Inspectors of a division shall meet together in order to discuss questions that may arise in their work and to stand-

¹Brackets in the original.

ardize the system of inspection. For the same purposes all the Inspectors shall meet at such times and places as may be designated by the Minister.

9. Each Inspector shall report upon the general condition of all the classes, on the form prescribed by the Minister. This report shall be subject to the approval of the Minister upon the report of the Chief Inspector.

10. If either of the Inspectors of a division finds that any Regulation or Instruction of the Department is not being properly carried out, he shall forthwith report specially on such cases to the Minister.

11. Each Inspector shall forward a copy of his ordinary inspectional report on the prescribed official form to the Minister within one week after the visit.

12. The Chief Inspector of Public and Separate Schools shall be the supervising inspector of the English-French Schools.

13. (1) No teacher shall be granted a certificate to teach in English-French schools who does not possess a knowledge of the English language sufficient to teach the Public and Separate School Course.

(2) No teacher shall remain in office or be appointed in any of said schools who does not possess a knowledge of the English language sufficient to teach the Public and Separate School Course of Study.

Legislative Grants to English-French Schools

14. The Legislative Grants to the English-French schools shall be made on the same conditions as are the grants to the other Public and Separate Schools.

15. On due application from the School Board and on the report of all the Inspectors approved by the Chief Inspector, an English-French school which is unable to provide the salary necessary to secure a teacher with the aforesaid qualifications shall receive a special grant in order to assist it in doing so.

Department of Education, August, 1913.

CHAPTER XVII

RECOMMENDATIONS ON THE TEACHING AND USE OF THE FRENCH LANGUAGE

PRESENT POSITION

Population of Ontario of French Racial Origin and of French Mother Tongue¹

1. The total population of Ontario as recorded at the 1941 census was 3,787,655. Of this number, 373,990—approximately 10 per cent—were classified as of French racial origin, and 289,146—approximately 8 per cent—as having French as their mother tongue. Of those classified as of French racial origin,² 60,483 were listed as “Official language French only”; 278,388 were reported as having French as their mother tongue; 88,385 were recorded as “Official language English only”; and 93,821 were recorded as having English as their mother tongue.

2. For comparison, the total population of Ontario in 1931 and 1941, according to the census, is given in Table 1. Figures are given separately for those reported as being of French racial origin and for those reported according to official languages and to mother tongues. During the decade under review the number of persons listed as “Official language English only” increased substantially, although the change was negligible in terms of proportion of the total population. Both the number and the proportion

¹The terms “racial origin”, “mother tongue”, and “official language” are used herein as defined by the Census Branch of the Dominion Bureau of Statistics. The definition of racial origin, as given in the bulletin “Population: No. B-5 Ontario”, is as follows:

“The term ‘racial origin’ as used in the census has a combined biological, cultural and geographical implication. In certain cases all three aspects are fairly clearly defined; in others the classification means little more than geographical origin, being distinct from birthplace classification, however, mainly in that it includes not only immigrants, but also their descendants. Hence the Canadian born, as well as the foreign born, are included in the number of persons of various racial origins shown in the tables of this bulletin.

“As a general rule, racial origin in the census is traced through the father.” “Mother tongue” is defined as “. . . the first language learned in childhood if still understood by the person.” In census tables the phrase “Official language” refers to English or French, since it is stated that “English and French are the official languages.”

²The figures given in this sentence are not reported separately in Table 1, which shows data for the total population only.

of those of “Official language English and French” were considerably greater in 1941 than in 1931, while those of “Official language French only” decreased in number and in proportion. There was an increase in the number but a decrease in the proportion of persons whose mother tongue was listed as English; an increase in both the number and the proportion of persons whose mother tongue was listed as French; and an increase in the number but a decrease in the proportion of persons whose mother tongue was listed as other than English or French. The total population of Ontario increased by about 10 per cent, whereas the population of French racial origin increased by approximately 25 per cent—from 8.73 to 9.87 per cent of the total population.

TABLE 1
COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE TOTAL POPULATION OF ONTARIO
BY RACIAL ORIGIN, OFFICIAL LANGUAGE, AND MOTHER TONGUE

<i>Classification</i>	<i>1931</i>		<i>1941</i>	
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Total Population	3,431,683	100.00	3,787,655	100.00
French Racial Origin	299,732	8.73	373,990	9.87
Official Language English Only	3,096,682	90.24	3,425,266	90.43
Official Language French Only	64,534	1.88	61,533	1.62
Official Language English and French	219,532	6.40	283,195	7.48
Mother Tongue English	2,796,821	81.50	3,073,320	81.14
Mother Tongue French	236,386	6.89	289,146	7.63
Other Mother Tongue	398,476	11.61	425,189	11.23

3. Approximately 16 per cent of those of French racial origin were reported in 1941 as “Official French only”; on this basis it may be concluded that 84 per cent understood English. With respect to mother tongue, 25 per cent of those listed as of French racial origin were classified as “mother tongue English”. Therefore, the vast majority of those of French racial origin have a knowledge of English, and for approximately one-quarter of this group the first language learned was English.

4. A further analysis, by age groups, of the data relating to the population of French racial origin reveals a considerable influx due to immigration, affecting mainly the adult, particularly the young adult, section of the population. For some reason, which we were unable to fathom, between the census years 1931 and 1941 the number of persons classified as “Official language French only” increased for the age group 10-14 years but decreased substantially for the age groups 0-4 and 5-9 years. Although it may be assumed that the children of French racial origin in the age group 10-14 years had been enrolled in school for a period of from four to eight years, yet in 1941, 6,901 (nearly 17 per cent) of the group were reported

as "Official language French only". These children might reasonably be expected as a result of their education to have gained a knowledge of both English and French. But such was not the case. We are unable to explain this anomaly, although it may be related in part at least to immigration.

5. Data given in the 1941 census indicate that the population of French racial origin in our province was concentrated in certain sections. In some townships and urban centres the population was predominantly of French racial origin. In 478 of the 694 rural townships and in 259 of the 334 urban centres, however, this group constituted less than 10 per cent of the total population. Even in those areas in which it formed the minority group, it tended to cluster; in Hay Township, Huron County, for example, 17.6 per cent of the population was of French racial origin, although the percentage for the whole county was only 2.7. In summary, it may be said that in 1941 the population of French racial origin was settled in both rural and urban areas, was highly concentrated in a few areas, and was widely dispersed in others.

Status of the French Language in Canada and in Ontario

6. In *The Canada Year Book 1947*,¹ a publication of the Dominion Bureau of Statistics, it was stated that "Canada is officially bilingual, the two languages being English and French . . ." and that ". . . the official language or languages are those recognized by statute for general use". In *A Conspectus of the Province of Ontario*,² published by authority of the Provincial Treasurer, it was stated under the heading "Official Language" that "Canada is a bilingual country, the two official languages being English and French". Since French has not been prescribed by statute as a language for general use in Canada, these statements do not accord with the use of the English and French languages as sanctioned by Section 133 of the *British North America Act*:

Either the English or the French language may be used by any person in the debates of the Houses of the Parliament of Canada and of the Houses of the Legislature of Quebec; and both those languages shall be used in the respective records and journals of those houses; and either of those languages may be used by any person or in any pleading or process in or issuing from any Court of Canada established under this Act, and in or from all or any of the courts of Quebec. The Acts of the Parliament of Canada, and of the Legislature of Quebec, shall be printed and published in both those languages.

Section 133 defines the occasions when the French language shall or may be used officially in Canada. However, the *Canadian Citizenship Act*³ of

¹Dominion Bureau of Statistics, *The Canada Year Book 1947*, Ottawa: King's Printer and Controller of Stationery, p. 122.

²Ontario Bureau of Statistics and Research, *A Conspectus of the Province of Ontario*, Toronto: King's Printer, 1947, p. 20.

³10 Geo. VI, Ch. 15, Sec. 10 (1) (e), S.C.

1946 provides that a certificate of Canadian citizenship may be granted to any person who, among other requirements, has an adequate knowledge of either the English or the French language. This is another instance where the French language is officially recognized, but its recognition is for the purposes of the Act in question only and does not in any sense give the French language a status equivalent to that of the English language. In the Province of Quebec, English and French have equal official status. This is not true in the other nine provinces of Canada.

7. Canada is not officially bilingual. The recognized position of the French language in Canada today was clearly stated by the Hon. G. Edouard Rinfret, Postmaster General, in the House of Commons at Ottawa on October 27th, 1949.¹ He said:

This brings me to the other remark made by the hon. member for Broadview (Mr. Church). I am supposed to have said that 'This—extending the French language to all Canada—will be done when the constitution is amended', the reference being to section 133. I did not say anything about amending section 133. I drew the attention of the population of Quebec to the fact that section 133 protected the French language in the federal government at Ottawa, in the federal courts, and in the province of Quebec. There is no guarantee under section 133 for the use of the French language elsewhere than in Quebec and Ottawa. I said that it could not be claimed that Canada is a bilingual country. I said also that I would fight in the future—not at this time, because no change is contemplated in section 133—to have Canada known as a bilingual country and to have section 133 amended if necessary so that the French and English languages would be official throughout Canada.

In speaking on a programme of the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, entitled "The Nation's Business", on January 31st, 1950, the Postmaster General also stated in reference to Section 133:

Section 133 of the B.N.A. Act stipulates that the French language is official only in the Ottawa Parliamentary debates and records, in the Federal Courts of Justice, and in the province of Quebec, but nowhere else; there is no provision for the other provinces.

In our opinion, Section 133 of the *British North America Act* and these statements by the Postmaster General define unambiguously the official status of the French language in Canada and in the provinces of Canada.

8. In the province of Ontario the language of the Legislature and of the courts is English; indeed, *The Judicature Act*² specifically states that: "Writs, pleadings and proceedings in all courts shall be in the English language only . . ." As we noted earlier, the Legislative Assembly of Ontario has the power to regulate (or, indeed, to prohibit) the introduction of French as a subject of study and the use of French as a language of instruction and communication in the publicly supported schools of the province. This was clearly set forth in the judgment of the Privy Council

¹*Debates, House of Commons, Dominion of Canada, 2nd Session, 1949, Vol. II, p. 1195.*

²R.S.O. 1937, Ch. 100, Sec. 119.

in 1917 in the case of "Mackell vs. the Ottawa Separate School Trustees", in which their Lordships concluded that the use of the French language in the schools of Ontario was not a right or privilege within the meaning of Sections 91, 92, and, in particular, 93 of the *British North America Act* of 1867.

9. In relation to the official status of the French language in Ontario, Brief 113, submitted by the Inter-Church Committee on Protestant-Roman Catholic Relations, states in part:

This section [Section 133 of the *British North America Act*] gives the French language official status for carefully determined fields under the governments of the Dominion and of Quebec; but in Ontario it has no more official status than German. The omission of this section of the Act to mention any legal standing for French in Ontario, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, indicates its lack of any legal right. On the positive side the two respects in which it is official for the Dominion are denied for the Province of Ontario . . .

This view seems to have been tacitly accepted in Brief 172, submitted by the Association canadienne-française d'Éducation d'Ontario:

The French language has in Ontario a historical status, based on precedence and established custom. The past cannot be denied as a fact, and the legal foundation for the teaching of the French language matters little if we remember that it has been taught in the schools of the territory now known as Ontario without interruption from the very origins of the colony to the present time. That historical factor underlies the two regimes, and has survived all changes in forms of government and in constitutional systems.

Later in the same brief, the Association refers to a "right" in connection with the French language, but it is not clear whether a "legal" or "natural" right is intended:

We do not think that our English-speaking compatriots, who are reputedly imbued with the principles of British fair-play, will begrudge the measure of liberty that we enjoy of teaching our children their mother-tongue. We do not wish to force on anyone the teaching of French. Our only wish is that our children learn their own language in addition to the language of the majority. For English-speaking Canadians, the study of French is not only a cultural enrichment but also a means of fostering national unity. For the French-speaking Canadians, it is the exercise of a right which they will never forego.

10. English, it is worth repeating, is the only language officially recognized by statute for use in Ontario. The French language is not sanctioned by statute for use in the Legislature, in the courts, or in the schools of our province.

The Programme in those Public, Separate, and Secondary Schools in which Provision is made for Special Courses in French

11. Before 1885, as we have seen, decision as to the teaching of English, French, or German in elementary schools was apparently left to the judgment of local boards of trustees and teachers. When the teaching of English was made compulsory in 1885, the privilege of having French or

German taught could be secured in "French or German Schools" by the board of trustees with the approval of the inspector. The regulation of the Department in 1891 was:

(1) In school sections where the French or the German language prevails, the trustees, with the approval of the Inspector, may, in addition to the course of study prescribed for Public Schools, require instruction to be given in reading, grammar, and composition to such pupils as are directed by their parents or guardians to study either of these languages . . .¹

In 1896 the phrase "with the approval of the Inspector" was deleted, but otherwise the regulation continued in effect until 1936, when it was discontinued.

12. With reference to the "conditions under which French may be introduced as a subject of study into a given school", the Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee recommended:

When a request for the introduction of French into a Public or Separate school in which it is not now a subject of instruction is made by a school board or any substantial number of ratepayers, the question should be settled only after a careful survey of the situation by competent and independent investigators. We suggest, therefore, that the responsibility for making such surveys should rest with a committee consisting of the Chief Inspector of Public and Separate Schools, the Director of English Instruction, the Director of French Instruction, and the Inspector of the schools concerned. The recommendation of this committee should be submitted to the Minister of Education for approval and his decision should be regarded as final.

Where, at the present time, it is desired to introduce French as a subject of study in a public or separate school, the board of school trustees must decide unanimously to make application to the Minister for special permission. Upon receipt of the request, the Minister asks for a report on the situation from the inspector in whose inspectorate the school is situated, and information is also sought from other local sources. He grants or withholds approval on the basis of the information obtained.

13. In the school year 1947-48, of the total enrolment of 564,529 pupils in public and separate schools, 48,451 (about 8.6 per cent) were attending schools in which French was a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister of Education. Of these pupils, 44,573 were enrolled in Roman Catholic separate schools and 3,878 in public schools. They were taught by 1,678 teachers, of whom 1,456 held First or Second Class teaching certificates. Of these pupils, 1,604 were in grade IX or grade X in elementary schools.

14. The Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee thought it advisable to permit special adaptations of the secondary school curriculum in order that French-speaking students might continue the study of their own language. This recommendation was adopted. Subject to the approval of the Minister, prescribed courses in special or advanced French were offered for such

¹See Chapter XVI, paragraph 17.

students in secondary schools; and 1,848 students were enrolled in these courses in December, 1948.

15. The programmes for schools in which special provision is made for teaching the French language are based upon those authorized for the public, separate, and secondary schools of the province. Circular 46, entitled "Courses of Study and Examinations in Schools Attended by French-Speaking Pupils", purports to outline the curriculum, courses of study, and textbooks approved by the Minister of Education for "French-speaking pupils who take special courses in French in the elementary and secondary schools of the Province". But in many respects it fails to do so. The only courses of study given for any grade are those in the subject of French. For the programme in grades I to IV inclusive, neither curriculum nor time allotments are prescribed or even suggested; and, although time allotments are proposed for grades V to VIII, the curriculum for these grades is only inferentially outlined. Nowhere in Circular 46 is a recommendation given as to when English or French should be introduced as a subject of study.

16. In the adaptations of the programmes for public and separate schools implied in Circular 46, the time to be devoted to the study of French is obtained by reducing the time allotted to other subjects—in particular to health, natural science, music, and art and to practical subjects such as crafts, home economics, and agriculture. In secondary schools the time for special French courses is obtained through a reduction in the time allotted to optional subjects.

17. Since the report of the Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee, no comprehensive survey has been undertaken of the efficiency of elementary and secondary schools in which special courses in French are offered. From various sources, however, we have secured information which is of help in an evaluation of the effectiveness of the programmes of these schools in recent years.

18. From the statistics given in the *Report of the Minister of Education* for 1948, the progress of pupils in schools in which French is a subject of instruction may be compared with that of pupils in all elementary schools. The proportion of pupils enrolled in different grades, the proportion of "over-age" pupils in each grade, and the number of pupils who passed the high school entrance examination in relation to the net enrolment in grades I to VIII inclusive show a consistent difference in rate of progress. Of the pupils enrolled in schools in which French is a subject of instruction, a smaller proportion are enrolled in the higher grades, a higher proportion are "over-age" in each of the grades, and a smaller proportion successfully complete the work of grade VIII. Despite the reclassification on an age-grade basis made in 1938 and 1939, to which reference was made in the previous chapter, pupils in schools in which French is a subject of instruction proceed from grade to grade at a slower rate than do pupils in other

elementary schools. It is true that substantial improvement has been made since 1928; but even today a large proportion of the pupils in these schools leave without completing the elementary school programme.

19. The enrolment, by grades, in special French courses in secondary schools in 1948 was as follows:

Grade	IX	X	XI	XII	XIII	Total
Enrolment	890	422	314	198	24	1,848

The number of pupils taking such courses has more than doubled since 1938 (from 839 to 1,848), but the proportion of pupils in each grade has not greatly changed. Although the relatively high enrolment in the lower grades can be attributed in part to the recent establishment of special French courses in a number of secondary schools, relatively few students complete the secondary school course. Enrolment in grade XIII has been particularly low in recent years: compared with an enrolment of 24 in 1948, in 1938 it was 32; in 1939 it was 67; and in 1940 it was 48. Paralleling the decrease in enrolment in grade XIII, there has been an increase in enrolment in grades X, XI, and XII.

20. To supplement the information obtained from official statistics, a questionnaire concerning conditions and practices in schools where French was a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister was prepared and sent, at our request, by the Department of Education to the inspectors of these schools. An analysis of the replies is given below.

- (1) Pupils, even in senior grades, do not understand and speak English as well as they do French. In some areas, even in the higher grades, a few pupils apparently do not understand English, and others do not understand French.
- (2) In the majority of cases, even for children in higher grades, French is the language used on the playground; for only a small number of classrooms was it reported that English was generally used.
- (3) The proportion of time during which English is used as the language of instruction varies according to subject and grade. For example, in grade I French is generally the language of instruction for all subjects. It is the language used in all grades for religious exercises. English is used to a greater extent as the language of instruction in higher grades—about half the time for most subjects in grade V and above. However, in some classrooms English is evidently taught only as one of the subjects of the programme and is not used as a language of instruction.
- (4) The language used in giving school directions is more frequently French than English and in a number of classrooms, even in higher grades, only French is used.
- (5) Teachers are generally more proficient in oral French than in oral English; but the reports of the inspectors indicate that some teachers are not proficient in either language.

- (6) Practice in these schools with respect to the use of English and French varies widely—from the teaching of French as a subject of instruction only, to the teaching of English as a subject of instruction only. In general, French is used more than English in instruction, the proportion in its favour being in most cases three to two and in some cases three to one.

21. For the period December 1, 1948, to September 1, 1949, Mr. W. R. Stewart, B.A., Inspector of Secondary Schools, was appointed Acting Director of English Instruction for elementary schools in which French is a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister. He was assigned the duty of visiting schools, conferring with inspectors, and meeting boards of trustees. At our request,¹ he prepared a report, which is given in full below. It summarizes his findings for the schools he visited with reference to (a) how well English was being taught; (b) the extent of the use of English as a language of instruction and communication in the different grades; and (c) the proficiency of pupils in the various grades in understanding and using oral and written English. In his report Mr. Stewart stated:

Item (a)

The success with which English is being taught varies considerably. In good schools in districts where both English and French are heard on the streets there is great success; in poorer schools, in districts where English is rarely heard outside the schools, there is little success. In general, the teachers, anxious to have their pupils well prepared for the Entrance examinations, were zealous and industrious in their efforts to teach English effectively.

Item (b)

Grade I: In general, French is the language of instruction and communication in this grade. In many schools no English is spoken at all. In others, although French is spoken almost exclusively, some practice in oral English is given. In others the presence of English-speaking pupils in the class makes it necessary, from a practical standpoint, to use English as well as French.

Grade II: In this grade the formal teaching of conversational English (based on a manual) is introduced and becomes a part of the daily routine. In general, except for this period of English conversation, French is spoken throughout the day.

Grade III: In this grade English reading is introduced so that a portion of the day is spent on English reading and conversation. In general, French is spoken at other times in the day.

Grade IV: In this grade English writing is introduced so that a portion of the day is spent on English reading, writing, and conversation. In general, French is spoken at other times in the day.

Grades V, VI, VII and VIII: In these grades English reading, grammar, spelling and composition are taught in English, and French reading, grammar, spelling and composition are taught in French. The other subjects are taught sometimes in French, sometimes in English. In a certain Grade VIII class I observed that the pupils' notes in History were sometimes written in French, sometimes in English. I recall an Arithmetic class in which a portion of the problems were written on the blackboard and discussed entirely in French,

¹Letter addressed to Dr. F. S. Rutherford, Deputy Minister of Education, dated April 12, 1950, and his reply of April 26, 1950.

whereas the remaining problems were written and discussed entirely in English. I recall another case where an Arithmetic problem was discussed in French and then discussed again in English in order to make the pupils familiar with the Arithmetical terms in both languages. I recall a class where a formal lesson in French Grammar, taught entirely in French, was followed immediately by a formal lesson in English Grammar, taught entirely in English. In the first case all discussion by teacher and pupils was in French, whereas in the second case all discussion by teacher and pupils was in English.

Item (c)

Grade I: There is considerable variation in the schools. In certain schools the pupils of Grade I know no English, cannot speak it or understand it; in others they have some ability in its oral use and some ability in comprehension; in others they have more ability in English than in French. In many schools there is considerable variation within the class. Some pupils may understand no English, others no French.

Grade II: Proficiency in English is slightly greater in this grade, owing to the introduction of regular practice in oral conversation.

Grade III: Proficiency in English is increased somewhat further owing to the introduction of English reading.

Grade IV: Generally speaking, proficiency in English is somewhat greater than in Grade III.

Grades V, VI, VII and VIII: A gradual increase in proficiency in English is noticeable generally from Grade V to Grade VIII. There is, of course, considerable variation in the schools. In some schools the pupils of Grade VIII attain a remarkable degree of proficiency in English, whereas in others the pupils of Grade VIII achieve little ability in reading English, in comprehending what they have read, and in carrying on a conversation based on the reading material. The ability of the pupils ranges between these two extremes. In general, after visiting schools in various parts of the province, I was favourably impressed by the pupils' proficiency in English.

22. In order to secure first-hand knowledge of the conditions in the schools in which French is a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister, members of the Commission visited a number of such schools in rural and urban areas. We found that the conditions and efficiency of instruction varied from school to school. We are pleased to report that in some schools excellent instruction was being given in both English and French. In other schools, unfortunately, the situation was different. In a few cases, pupils in even the upper grades had very little knowledge of English and little or no facility in its use. In other cases, not only was instruction in English inadequate, but instruction in French was little better. We noticed also that, upon occasion, children whose racial origin or mother tongue was not French were following the programme in which French was the sole medium of instruction in the early grades.

*Opinions Relating to the Teaching and Use of French
in Publicly Supported Schools*

23. The briefs submitted to us show a sharp cleavage of opinion in regard to the teaching and use of the French language in the publicly supported schools of our province.

24. In Brief 201, submitted by the Joint Legislation Committee of the Grand Orange Lodges of Ontario East and West, it is stated:

Bi-lingual schools were never intended to have a place in the Public or Separate School systems of Ontario. They are a fungous growth on the school systems. If continued, they will create a widening division among our people which does not tend to promote the growth of a true democratic state, but undoubtedly acts as a hindrance.

25. The Inter-Church Committee on Protestant-Roman Catholic Relations, in Brief 113, page 98, recommended:

That only school sections and communities where the French language prevails shall have schools for French-speaking pupils *where French is taught as a subject*.¹ In communities where the French language does not prevail and where such schools exist they shall be abolished.

Recommendations A, B, and C on page 96 of the same brief, were as follows:

- A. That the attempt, which has been almost completely successful, to split the educational system of Ontario into two distinct divisions,—one English, one French—, shall not only be checked but that the dual system of education shall be entirely eradicated.
- B. That the English language shall be used exclusively as the language of instruction and in all communications with pupils in regard to discipline and the management of the school *from the first day*, and that all references in the Public Schools Act to exceptions shall be repealed.
- C. That the French language shall be used in the elementary school only when French is being taught as a subject.

26. In the opinion of these two organizations, the teaching and use of French in publicly supported schools should be abolished or strictly limited. If their recommendations were adopted, French would be permitted, at the most, as a subject of study, and then only in school sections or communities where the French language prevailed.

27. The point of view of the Association canadienne-française d'Éducation d'Ontario was expressed in Brief 172:

We firmly believe in a policy of co-operation and we can affirm that the French residents of Ontario are eager to co-operate in the application of a system of education which gives to their children an adequate knowledge of the two official languages of this country. We desire nothing else and will be satisfied with nothing less . . .

The French people of Ontario, however, would not be satisfied with a system of education giving them freedom to teach the French language to their children unless it also provided for an opportunity to learn English. They ardently desire their children to learn English as well as possible. They recognize that English is required in the Province of Ontario for whomsoever wishes to be successful and of service to his fellow-men . . .

28. The desire expressed in Brief 172 that French-speaking children have an opportunity to learn their own language in addition to English was supported in Brief 196, submitted by the Roman Catholic Bishops of Ontario:

¹Italics ours.

In this connection, we express our sympathy with legitimate aspirations of the large body of French-Canadians in important parts of Ontario to educate their children conformably to their cherished language and traditional culture, with due regard to the need for an adequate knowledge of the English language and full harmony with British institutions in this English-speaking Province.

29. As these briefs indicate, differences of opinion arise mainly in connection with two questions: whether permission to introduce French as a subject of study should be limited to schools in areas where the French language prevails; and whether the use of the French language as a medium of instruction and communication in schools should be permitted. It is apparently accepted that in secondary schools English will be the only language generally used in instruction and in communication with pupils and that French will be a subject of study only. No objection has been registered with us to the introduction of advanced French courses as subjects of study in secondary schools under the provisions outlined in Circular 46 of the Department of Education. It is on the teaching and use of French in elementary schools that opinions differ sharply.

30. As we have seen, for more than 40 years the regulations restricted the introduction of French or German as subjects of study in elementary schools to "school sections where the French or the German language prevails". Although this regulation has been discontinued, the Inter-Church Committee on Protestant-Roman Catholic Relations wishes to have the restriction re-introduced in so far as French is concerned. Those submitting Briefs 172 and 196, on the other hand, would permit the introduction of French as a subject of study for French-speaking pupils in an elementary school, subject only to the conditions that they acquire an adequate knowledge of English and that satisfactory instruction be provided for other pupils in attendance. On this question, the Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee stated:

The claims made by French-speaking parents that their children should be given adequate instruction in French appear to us to be reasonable. There should therefore be a frank acknowledgment that French may be introduced as a subject of study into the schools attended by French-speaking children, provided, as we have said, that this can be done with a due regard to the satisfactory instruction of other pupils.

31. With respect to the use of French as a language of instruction and communication in elementary schools, the organizations submitting Briefs 113 and 201 would permit the French language to be used only in teaching French as a subject of study. On the other hand, the Association canadienne-française d'Éducation d'Ontario believes that the use of French in elementary schools should not be so restricted and that both French and English should be used as languages of instruction and communication. The Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee was of opinion that both languages should be used in instruction and communication, but "that no rule which prescribes the medium of instruction for different forms or grades of a system can be applied impartially to all schools within that system."

32. While we do not necessarily support all the recommendations of the Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee, we are in agreement with these particular conclusions. In subsequent sections we outline the provisions which we feel should be made for French as a subject of study and as a language of instruction and communication in the publicly supported schools of our province.

THE TEACHING AND USE OF FRENCH IN THE SCHOOLS OF THE REORGANIZED EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

FRENCH AS A SUBJECT OF STUDY IN ELEMENTARY AND POST-ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

33. As a modern language, French has been a subject of study in the programme of the secondary schools of the province for many years. For most students, therefore, the study of French is begun in grade IX. Many educators believe, however, that modern languages should be introduced at an earlier stage. Indeed, with the permission of the Minister, a number of elementary school boards have, on an experimental basis, introduced French as one of the subjects of study in their public elementary schools. Thus, in these schools children whose mother tongue was English were afforded an opportunity to receive instruction in oral French. In our opinion, such permission should be granted to any public or separate school board which makes application to introduce French as an additional subject of study.

34. Accordingly we recommend

that a local education authority be authorized, subject to the permission of the Minister of Education, to introduce French as an additional subject of study in a public or separate elementary school or classroom under its jurisdiction and to give instruction in that subject in French during the class periods concerned.

FRENCH AS A SUBJECT OF STUDY AND LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION AND COMMUNICATION IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

35. We believe that, in addition to the provision permitting French to be taught as a subject of study, as outlined above, special provision should be made permitting in certain elementary schools the introduction of French as a "subject of study and language of instruction and communication". By such special provision we mean that French would be taught as a subject and used, in addition to English, as a language of instruction in teaching other subjects and in communications with pupils in regard to discipline and the management of the school or classroom. The special provision would apply to classrooms attended, for the most part, by children of French racial origin whose parents desire them to become proficient in English as well as to develop a special facility in the use of French.

36. The public or separate schools or classrooms to which such permission is granted must have as their prime purpose the imparting of the essentials of a sound elementary school education. A special additional purpose will be to have the pupils develop a working knowledge of the English and French languages.

37. We recommend

- (a) *that, in addition to English as a subject of study and language of instruction and communication, a local education authority be authorized, under specified conditions and subject to the permission of the Minister of Education, to make provision for French as a subject of study and language of instruction and communication in a public or separate elementary school or classroom under its jurisdiction;*
- (b) *that the granting of such permission be subject to the condition that at each level of the elementary school stage the pupils attain a reasonable proficiency in English and in the other essentials of an elementary school education.*

38. Without wishing to detract from the importance of instruction in French and the development of facility in the understanding and use of that language by children of parents of French racial origin, we feel compelled to emphasize again the importance in this province of an understanding and knowledge of English and of a facility in its use. It is essential that, when the elementary school programme has been completed, the pupils in schools and classes where French is a language of instruction and communication should have a proficiency in English approximately equivalent to that of English-speaking pupils at the corresponding stage of their development. Without this, such pupils will be seriously handicapped upon entry into post-elementary school, where English will be the language of instruction and communication. Indeed, French-speaking parents desire their children to develop such a proficiency in English. But, as is recognized wherever pupils seek to gain proficiency in two languages, unless the school day or school year is lengthened or the period of schooling is extended, some part of the school programme must be sacrificed in order to achieve this aim.

General Conditions Governing Granting of Permission

39. At the present time, where a board of public or separate school trustees unanimously requests the introduction of French "as a subject of instruction", an investigation is carried out at the direction of the Minister and, on receipt of the report thereof, he either grants or withholds his approval. Although the approval applies only to the introduction of French "as a subject of instruction", it is recognized, both inside and outside the Department of Education, that French will be not only a subject of instruction but also a language of instruction and communication. There are

no regulations governing the conditions under which the Minister may grant approval to a board of trustees to introduce French "as a subject of instruction", nor has Circular 46, which outlines the courses of study, been registered as a regulation, as required under *The Regulations Act*.¹ We have been unable to secure reasons for the absence of specific regulations in this connection. As it stands at present, approval for the introduction of French is being granted without specific authorization by statute or regulation. In our opinion, the necessary regulations should be drafted in unambiguous language. We recommend

that the Minister of Education be authorized by statute to draft regulations governing the granting of permission to, and the withdrawal of permission from, a local education authority to have French taught as a subject of study and used as a language of instruction and communication in an elementary school or classroom under its jurisdiction.

40. Certain conditions should be satisfied before permission is granted to a local education authority to have French taught as a subject of study and used as a language of instruction and communication. We recommend

that the regulations governing the granting of permission to a local education authority to have French as a subject of study and language of instruction and communication in an elementary school or classroom under its jurisdiction require that the following conditions be met:

- (i) *that adequate provision will be made, through the use of English as the language of instruction and communication, for the efficient instruction of those pupils enrolled in the school or classroom whose parents do not desire them to study French or to receive instruction or communications in that language;*
- (ii) *that teachers competent, in the opinion of the Minister, to use both English and French as languages of instruction will be employed;*
- (iii) *that adequate instruction, in the opinion of the Minister, will be given in English and in French and in the other subjects of the elementary school curriculum.*

41. As a general procedure to be followed by a local education authority in applying for permission to have French taught as a subject of study and used as a language of instruction and communication and by the Minister in deciding whether to grant or withhold such permission, we recommend

- (a) *that, following application to the Minister by resolution of a public or separate school board to have French taught as a subject of study and used as a language of instruction and communication in an elementary school or classroom, a survey under the direction of the Minister be made to determine the need for, and feasibility of introducing, such special provisions;*

¹8 Geo. VI, Ch. 52, S.O.

- (b) *that such survey be made by a committee consisting of the provincial Supervisor of English Instruction,¹ the provincial Supervisor of French Instruction,¹ and an appointee of the Minister;*
- (c) *that the report of this committee be submitted to the Central Advisory Council for consideration and recommendation to the Minister, who will thereupon, at his discretion, grant or withhold the permission requested;*
- (d) *that, whether the permission be granted or not, the report of the committee and the recommendation of the Central Advisory Council be tabled in the Legislative Assembly at the first session held subsequent to its submission to the Minister.*

42. For the guidance of teachers, inspectors, boards of trustees, and the Minister, standards of achievement to be attained by pupils in oral and written English and French should be established. Accordingly we recommend

that standards of achievement in oral and written English and French for pupils completing the junior and senior divisions, respectively, in an elementary school in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication with the permission of the Minister, be established by the Minister, following recommendations thereon by his officials, on the basis of the best results considered by him to be attainable by such pupils.

43. Since 1927, there has been no comprehensive survey of the efficiency of the schools in which the French language has been "a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister". Such evidence as we have secured indicates that, in general, the standards of attainment in these schools and classrooms fall short of those in other public and separate schools and classrooms. In our opinion, such a survey should be conducted immediately. We recommend

that, in order to establish standards of achievement, the Minister of Education make a special investigation and survey of education in elementary schools and classrooms in which French is "a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister", and publish a report thereon.

44. We further recommend

that, in the reorganized educational system, in addition to the usual supervision and inspection of elementary schools and classrooms in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication, the Minister provide for a periodic special investigation and survey of education in such schools and classrooms to the end that pupils may be assisted to meet the standards established.

¹See the section on supervision of instruction in these schools appearing later in this chapter.

45. In our opinion, permission to a local education authority to have French taught as a subject of study and used as a language of instruction and communication should not be granted on a permanent basis. Over a period of time, the conditions governing the granting of such permission which we have specified above may not continue to be met, or the need for such special provisions may disappear. Arrangements must, therefore, be made for withdrawal of the permission where circumstances warrant. We recommend

- (a) *that, subject to the provision of (b) below, the permission to have French taught as a subject of study and used as a language of instruction and communication be granted for a specified period, for example six years, and be subject to renewal for a further specified period or periods upon submission of evidence satisfactory to the Minister of Education that the conditions specified are being met and that there is a continuing need for the said permission;*
- (b) *that, where permission to have French taught as a subject of study and used as a language of instruction and communication may be granted, or where heretofore the approval of the Minister has been given to have French introduced as "a subject of instruction", it be withdrawn at any time where the conditions specified in the regulations do not obtain; but, in such case, a new application may be made in the prescribed form when the conditions are complied with.*

Use of English and French

46. In schools and classrooms where permission has been granted to have French as a subject of study and language of instruction and communication, both English and French will, of course, be used as media of instruction and communication. The exclusive use of one language, English or French, as the language of instruction and communication will inevitably result in an impoverished vocabulary and a lack of proficiency in the other language, and a special purpose of these schools will not be achieved. Accordingly, we have made provision for the use of both English and French as languages of instruction and communication. We stress again, however, that, for French-speaking pupils, special attention will have to be paid to instruction in English and to its use as a language of instruction and communication, if they are to attain proficiency in that language.

47. The proportion of the school time to be devoted to the use of English and French as languages of instruction and communication must of necessity vary from school to school and from grade to grade. In some areas of our province, children will on entry to school understand and speak only English; in others, many will understand and speak only French; in still others, they will understand and speak both English and French.

Thus, it is impossible to prescribe for uniform application throughout the province a division of time between English and French as languages of instruction and communication. This was recognized by the Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee, which, as we previously noted, concluded "that no rule which prescribes the medium of instruction for different forms or grades of a system can be applied impartially to all schools within that system." With this point of view we fully agree.

48. It appears wise for a child to begin his education in the language "best known and understood . . . on his entry into school life". As stated by Merchant:¹

The best results are obtained when the medium of instruction is in the beginning the mother tongue. Life in the ordinary school is so different from the life of the home that the child on entrance to school finds himself in a strange and perplexing environment. He is bewildered if the language he hears in his lessons has no meaning for him, and for a long time he makes but little progress.

At present, the practice in Ontario is to use French almost exclusively in the early grades, despite the fact that some pupils may know both English and French and others may know only English. Since this policy is not in conformity with the above generally accepted principle, we are unable to support it.

49. Since the children of French racial origin will, in the majority of cases, understand and speak only French when they enter school, it will be a difficult matter to develop facility in the understanding and use of English. This brings us to the question as to whether it is possible to impart the essentials of a sound elementary school education and at the same time develop an understanding of, and gain facility in using, both English and French. The evidence of educational experts and long experience in our own province, other parts of Canada, and elsewhere indicate that, given the proper spirit, facilities, and methods, the answer is unquestionably in the affirmative. Satisfactory results are at present being obtained in a number of schools in our province; we believe that they could be achieved in all.

50. We recommend

(a) *that in schools or classrooms where French is taught as a subject of study and used as a language of instruction and communication the following procedures should apply:*

(i) *where children upon entry to school understand and speak English and French, both languages be used in all grades as media of instruction and communication;*

(ii) *where it is impracticable by reason of the pupil not understanding English to use it as a language of instruction and communication in grade I, conversational English be introduced in grade I and in kindergartens where established;*

¹F. W. Merchant, *Report on the Condition of English-French Schools in the Province of Ontario*, Toronto: King's Printer, 1912, p. 72. (See Chapter XVI.)

- (iii) *where it is impracticable by reason of the pupil not understanding French to use it as a language of instruction and communication in grade I, conversational French be introduced in grade I and in kindergartens where established;*
- (b) *that a committee consisting of the provincial Supervisor of English Instruction, the provincial Supervisor of French Instruction, and an appointee of the Minister determine, from time to time, for each school in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication the extent to which English and French are to be employed at various levels as media of instruction and communication, to the end that the required standards in each language may be attained.*

Programme of Studies

51. If the aims we have stated are to be achieved, adaptations of the general programme for elementary schools will be necessary in classrooms where French is taught as a subject of study and used as a language of instruction and communication. In discussing this subject, the Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee stated:

In the essentials the course should be the same as that required for public and separate schools, but certain restrictions should be made in the case of subjects that are less essential, because the full course as at present prescribed is evidently too heavy for French-speaking pupils, who have placed upon them the necessity of acquiring efficiency in a language which is not their mother tongue. They suggested that the programme should:

. . . preserve such essential subjects as Arithmetic, History, Geography, and Writing and, at the same time, give attention to Nature Study, Agriculture, or Elementary Science. A scheme so devised would, of course, provide for the acceptance of standing in French at the high school entrance examination in lieu of the subject or subjects for which it is made an option.

52. We recommend

- (a) *that a special programme be authorized by the Minister of Education for public and separate elementary schools in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication;*
- (b) *that this special programme follow as closely as possible the general programme for public and separate elementary schools and prescribe any necessary adaptations of the curriculum and courses of study.*

53. If, in addition to the subjects prescribed in the general programme for elementary schools, oral French, and French reading, grammar, composition, and spelling were included as subjects of study, the average French-speaking child would be unable to make satisfactory progress owing to the heavy burden of work. We do not favour lengthening the school day or year in such schools, and, for the psychological and pedagogical reasons

stated earlier, reject the alternative of prescribing a seven-year programme for French-speaking children in these schools. On the other hand, since each of the prescribed subjects has a part to play in the development of the child, it is not desirable that a subject be deleted from the programme unless there is no other recourse. The complete courses in English, social studies, health and physical training, and arithmetic must be included if the risk of failing to impart the essentials of a sound elementary school education is to be avoided. In our opinion, in only one way can the essential subjects be retained and the load of the average French-speaking pupil lightened: in music, art, and science only a minimum course should be required in each of the two divisions of the elementary school.

54. The linguistic differences prevailing in different parts of the province make it impossible to adopt uniform methods in the teaching of English in elementary schools in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication. In those schools located in "mixed" communities, where French-speaking children are in contact with English-speaking children and where the prevailing language is English, many French-speaking pupils will be familiar with English upon their admission to school. In such cases, instruction in English may follow fairly closely the methods used in public or separate schools attended by English-speaking pupils. On the other hand, children living in French-speaking communities may have had little or no opportunity to hear or speak English before attending school and must be given systematic training in English conversation before they begin English reading. There are two schools of thought as to when this teaching of English vocabulary should begin. Some would delay it until the child has acquired the mechanics of reading in his mother tongue, or even later; others would begin it upon the child's arrival at school. While individual differences must be considered, we have recommended that English conversation should be introduced in grade I and in kindergartens where established. In this way, pupils will become familiar with the English vocabulary which they will use when they begin English primary reading. In one-room rural schools, where the time the teacher can allot to each class is of necessity limited, pupils of grade I may, in addition to receiving limited direct instruction in English vocabulary, be encouraged to "listen in" on conversational lessons in English being conducted by the teacher with pupils in other grades in the room. This provides valuable "ear-training" in English and facilitates the formal teaching of English in higher grades.

55. English vocabulary should be taught through the use of the direct or natural method of teaching a language. Exercises in English conversation should be based on the Teachers' Manual entitled *Teaching English to French-speaking Pupils*. This manual, apparently first authorized by the Department of Education in 1912, has been revised recently; and we have been informed that, wherever used, it has produced excellent results.

Exercises in oral English serve as a preparation for the successful undertaking of English primary reading at a later stage. The knowledge the pupil has acquired of the mechanics of French primary reading will assist him in mastering English primary reading. Given textbooks adapted to his vocabulary and interests, the French-speaking pupil's reading ability in English should be equivalent at the end of the junior division, or early in the senior division, of the elementary school to that of an English-speaking child of the same age and grade. The postponement of formal English primary reading in the case of French-speaking pupils and the introduction of English conversation leading to primary reading appear to be based upon sound pedagogy, and should not retard the pupils' progress in school.

56. In the preparation of readers, the trend in modern pedagogy is to place emphasis on the child's vocabulary and interests. Even supplementary readers have, as far as possible, a "controlled vocabulary". Textbooks in English reading which are based on the controlled vocabulary of an English-speaking child may well be too difficult for a French-speaking child of the same age and grade. There is a danger that the large number of difficult and meaningless words constantly encountered will take away the pleasure of reading and leave instead a dislike of the English language. Special English readers with a controlled vocabulary based on the English vocabulary of French-speaking pupils, far from lowering the standard in English, should result in more intelligent and expressive reading, should ensure a better practical vocabulary, and should stimulate interest in reading English books.

57. In relation to the teaching of French reading, mastery of the art of reading at an early stage exerts a profound influence on the future education of the child. In general, in view of the fundamental importance of the art of reading, steps should be taken to provide French-speaking pupils with simple, interesting, and well graded French readers for the various grades. We have been informed that most French readers now in use are not satisfactory, and we believe that it is important that they be replaced by more suitable texts. For French-speaking pupils, French reading, based on methods similar to those followed in teaching English reading to English-speaking pupils, should be introduced in the first year of the junior division of the new elementary school and should be continued throughout the elementary school.

58. Because of the close inter-relationship of grammar, spelling, and composition, particularly in French, they should be co-ordinated and combined in one textbook for each of the years of the senior division of the elementary school. This integration is indispensable if there is to be a systematic application in written composition of the rules of spelling, vocabulary, and grammar. In addition to these textbooks, a teacher's guide, prepared under the direction of the Superintendent of Elementary Education and the Superintendent of Curriculum and containing suitable oral

exercises in French for use in the junior division of the elementary school, would help teachers to improve the spoken language of pupils and to lay a sound basis for oral and written French composition in the grades of the senior division.

59. Prior to the Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee Report of 1927, there existed, in effect, a class of schools known as "English-French". In "Instructions 17" of 1913, it was stated:

There are only two classes of Primary Schools in Ontario—Public Schools and Separate Schools; but, for convenience of reference, the term English-French is applied to those schools of each class annually designated by the Minister for inspection as provided in 5 below and in which French is a language of instruction and communication as limited in 3(1) below.

In commenting on this situation, the Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee stated:

French is taught and used as a language of communication and instruction in two classes of schools, viz.: (1) the so-called English-French schools, both Public and Roman Catholic Separate, with special departmental inspectors, and (2) the ordinary Public or Roman Catholic Separate schools which are attended by French-speaking children and which are under the regular inspectors of the areas in which the schools are located.

The Committee continued:

We know of no reason for continuing to maintain the distinction between these classes in the case of either the public or the separate schools. The separation does not make for either economy or efficiency of supervision . . .

Later it went on to state:

The particular designation, English-French, implying as it does a special type of school with special privileges or restrictions, should be dropped, and all elementary schools, whether attended by English-speaking or by French-speaking pupils should be placed in either one of the two categories—Public School or Roman Catholic Separate School.

60. In 1927 it was resolved¹ to restore the old classification of elementary schools—public and separate—which had been in force for generations. However, a new descriptive phraseology, which has come into fairly common use since that date, suggests that a special classification has, in effect, been introduced. In Brief 172, and in Circular 46 issued by authority of the Minister of Education, reference is made to "schools attended by French-speaking pupils".

61. Attention was drawn to this nomenclature in Brief 113, in which the Inter-Church Committee on Protestant-Roman Catholic Relations stated:

There are no such institutions as French Schools, English-French Schools, or Bilingual Schools in this province. The first name indicates a school in which French is the language of instruction and the second and third names indicate schools in which instruction is given in both English and French. No such schools have any legal existence in Ontario, and these names are never used in either the Acts and Regulations of the Department of Education or in its official correspon-

¹*Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1927, p. vii.*

dence. The only two kinds of elementary schools are Public and Separate Schools, and either of these may be for French-speaking pupils. The Department of Education has never defined the term—School for French-speaking pupils.

That there is, in fact, such a special class of schools might be inferred from the annual reports of the Minister of Education, a section of which is entitled "Schools Attended by French-speaking Pupils". The report under this heading is signed by the Director of French Instruction. It might reasonably be assumed that, since the schools reported upon are public and separate schools, the section should form a part of the report of the Superintendent of Elementary Education.

62. In the reorganized educational system, elementary schools in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication should not be constituted as a separate or distinct class of schools. Since there will be only two forms of elementary schools—public and separate—they should be placed in one or other of the two categories; and they should be administered under the Acts and regulations pertaining to public and separate schools. They will differ from other public and separate schools only in that their boards of trustees will have permission from the Minister of Education to have French taught as a subject of study and used as a language of instruction and communication in one or more classrooms.

63. We have been advised that some official records of these schools have been kept in French, and we have noted that contracts with teachers are not infrequently written in that language. In our opinion, since English is the official language of this province, official records and correspondence of all public bodies should be in that language only.

64. We recommend

- (a) *that all publicly supported elementary schools in Ontario be placed in one or other of two categories—public schools and separate schools;*
- (b) *that the official records of all publicly supported schools—and the letterheads, names of schools, etc.—be in English only, save for place names where the official name is French.*

Supervision of Instruction

65. At present, supervision of instruction in elementary schools and classrooms in which French is "a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister" is a responsibility of the Superintendent of Elementary Education. The Director of French Instruction and 13 inspectors, all of whom are bilingual and of French racial origin, inspect the work of approximately 1,700 teachers in such schools. The position of Director of English Instruction has been vacant since 1934,¹ but, as previously noted, from December, 1948, to September, 1949, Mr. W. R. Stewart, B.A., an inspector of secondary schools, served as Acting Director of English Instruction.

¹See Chapter XVI.

66. In criticism of the present provisions for inspection, the Inter-Church Committee on Protestant-Roman Catholic Relations stated in Brief 113:

Such is the state to which the inspection of these 1400 school-rooms has been brought. They are sealed off almost hermetically from any English influence. Every inspector is a French-Canadian . . . These, together with Dr. Gauthier, have practically exclusive control of what takes place in these schools. It seems almost unbelievable that a group of schools, the officials of which, for more than fifty years, have resisted the proper instruction of English to their pupils, and which resistance the Government had determined to overcome, should have every English Inspector replaced by a French-Canadian.

As a means of improving supervision, the Inter-Church Committee recommended:

J. That the recommendations of the Merchant Report of 1927 in regard to the appointment of a Director of English Instruction and a Director of French Instruction for schools for French-speaking pupils shall be implemented at once; that the two Directors shall be directly responsible to and under the direction of the Superintendent of Elementary Education; and that both these officials shall have their offices in the Parliament Buildings, Toronto.

K. That . . . schools for French-speaking pupils, except in isolated regions, shall be inspected alternately, or together, by English-speaking and French-speaking Inspectors.

67. A different point of view was expressed by the Association canadienne-française d'Éducation d'Ontario, in Brief 172:

In conformity with the aims of the Merchant Report bilingual inspectors have been assigned to the inspection of the schools in which bilingual teaching is given. French and English being taught in those schools, it is natural that they be inspected by men who are proficient in both languages. Is it not logical that the Department of Education should choose as inspectors of bilingual schools French-speaking men with a proficiency in English?

68. In our opinion, all elementary schools in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication should be inspected by officials of the Minister of Education. Most of the schools in which French is at present "a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister" are separate schools. Our recommendation that the inspection of separate schools continue to be conducted by officials of the Minister of Education will mean that, in any event, inspection of the majority of schools in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication will be conducted by these officials. We recommend *that elementary school classes in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication with the permission of the Minister be inspected by officials appointed by the Minister of Education.*

69. Persons who are otherwise qualified and who are proficient in both English and French should be appointed as inspectors of these schools; but we can see no reason why all need necessarily be of French racial origin. It is too often assumed in our province that a bilingual person is

one of French racial origin with some knowledge of the English language—never one of English racial origin with some knowledge of the French language. Much might be gained if some applicants of English racial origin were appointed.

70. To secure efficient instruction in both English and French in these schools, special arrangements for the supervision of instruction in these two languages must be made within the Division of Elementary Education in the Department. We support the recommendation of the Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee that special supervision of instruction in English and French, under the direction of the Superintendent of Elementary Education, should be the responsibility of two of his assistants appointed for the purpose. We must stress that there should be two assistants and that one should be responsible for the supervision of instruction in English and the other for the supervision of instruction in French in these elementary schools. There is good reason to believe that under the present system of supervision, where there is no Director of English Instruction, emphasis has been placed upon the improvement of instruction in French only. The appointees should not have the title of director since they will not be directing instruction but will be supervising only one phase of it—either English instruction or French instruction—under the Superintendent of Elementary Education. Nevertheless, the importance of their duties will demand the selection of highly qualified persons and will warrant the payment of relatively high salaries.

71. We recommend

- (a) *that the positions of Director of English Instruction and Director of French Instruction in the Department of Education be discontinued;*
- (b) *that the Minister of Education appoint to the Division of Elementary Education of the Department*
 - (i) *a Provincial Supervisor of English Instruction, and*
 - (ii) *a Provincial Supervisor of French Instruction;**and that their classification for salary purposes be equivalent to that of a director;*
- (c) *that such supervisors have responsibility, under the direction of the Superintendent of Elementary Education, for the supervision of instruction in English and French, respectively, in elementary schools in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication;*
- (d) *that the duties of the Supervisors be*
 - (i) *jointly to supervise and, where necessary, jointly to inspect instruction in English and French in elementary schools in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication;*

- (ii) *to co-operate with inspectors in order to improve and make more effective the instruction in English and French in the elementary schools in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication;*
- (e) *that such supervisors be responsible to the Superintendent of Elementary Education for the proficiency of such instruction in elementary schools.*

72. The present Director of French Instruction has permanent residence in Ottawa and conducts many of his official duties from that centre. Although he has an office in the Department of Education in the Parliament Buildings, Toronto, we were informed that normally he occupies it only about two days every other week. He stated in his evidence before us that the greater part of his correspondence was conducted in French. With these practices, and with the policy which permits them, we find it impossible to agree. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that the Supervisor of English Instruction and the Supervisor of French Instruction be required to take up permanent residence within daily commuting distance of their offices in the Department of Education, Toronto;*
- (b) *that all official correspondence conducted by these supervisors be in English only.*

Professional Preparation of Teachers¹

73. At present, prospective teachers for schools in which French is "a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister of Education" are trained in the University of Ottawa Normal School. Graduates receive First or Second Class teaching certificates, depending upon the course taken. The teaching certificates are, however, expressly limited; the holder is qualified only as "a teacher in schools which are attended by French-speaking pupils and in which French is taught as part of the courses of study."² As has been stated, this normal school is operated under an agreement made in 1927 between the Minister of Education and the Corporation of the University of Ottawa. The supervision of the school is a responsibility of the Superintendent of Professional Training, Department of Education.

74. There was disagreement in the briefs presented to us as to the future status of the University of Ottawa Normal School. The Association canadienne-française d'Éducation d'Ontario, in Brief 172, recommended:

As the Ottawa University Normal School is mainly responsible for this increase [in number of teachers holding First or Second Class certificates] and the gradual improvement of the bilingual schools since 1927, we strongly recommend its maintenance by the Department of Education.

¹For a discussion of our general provisions for the training of teachers and their conditions of service, see Chapters XXII and XXIII.

²See O. Reg. 149/47, Forms 5 and 6.

A recommendation to the opposite effect was made by the Inter-Church Committee on Protestant-Roman Catholic Relations, in Brief 113:

That the University of Ottawa Normal School shall be abolished, and students preparing to teach in schools for French-speaking pupils shall, for the present, attend the Ottawa Normal School, shall have practice teaching in schools for both English- and French-speaking pupils, shall take the regular course in all subjects, and receive special instruction in teaching English to French-speaking pupils and also in teaching French, as a subject, to French-speaking pupils. That the students shall receive the regular teacher's certificate and also a special certificate for teaching in schools for French-speaking pupils. As soon as expedient a regular Normal School shall be opened in Windsor, and a section of the teachers for French-speaking pupils shall be trained at this school.

In view of these opposing recommendations, we have made a special study of the possible methods of training prospective teachers for elementary schools in which French will be a subject of study and language of instruction and communication. Despite improvements since 1927, the number of prospective teachers for these schools remains inadequate, and the academic and professional qualifications of the teachers in service are generally lower than those of teachers in other elementary schools. This situation has continued over the years despite payment by the Department of Education of living allowances to teachers in training at the University of Ottawa Normal School, the establishment of a separated institution for their training, and the imposition of a limitation on the validity of their teaching certificates.

75. It is axiomatic that the major factor determining efficiency of instruction is the academic, professional, and personal qualifications of the teacher. This is particularly true in the case of classrooms where both English and French are taught as subjects and used as languages of instruction and communication. We are convinced that only with well-qualified teachers who are fully aware of the aim and seized with the spirit of education in these classrooms will it be possible for French-speaking pupils to secure an adequate elementary school education and to develop an understanding of, and gain facility in using, the English and French languages.

76. Teachers for these schools should not, in our opinion, be trained in a special school established for this purpose. We have been unable to determine why it was decided to establish the University of Ottawa Normal School—as previously noted, a school of this type was but an alternative suggestion in the Merchant-Scott-Coté Report of 1927. We have been informed by competent educational authorities appearing as witnesses before us that any necessary special professional training for prospective teachers for these schools could be given in the other provincial normal schools. Apparently, only a modification of courses is required, not a special programme in a separated training school. In our opinion, the establishment of a special institution for training prospective teachers for these schools is both unnecessary and inadvisable. It must inevitably lead to segregation—

to their own detriment—of those of French racial origin. We recommend

- (a) *that the agreement between the Minister of Education and the Corporation of the University of Ottawa for the establishment and operation of the University of Ottawa Normal School be cancelled, in accordance with Section 12 of the said agreement;*
- (b) *that the professional preparation of prospective teachers for publicly supported elementary schools in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication with the permission of the Minister be afforded as a part of a two-year programme¹ for training prospective teachers for publicly supported elementary schools, through the provision of additional special courses in one or more, as may be necessary, of the provincial junior colleges of education.¹*

77. In the junior colleges of education in which such special courses are provided, for all students in attendance—including prospective teachers for elementary schools in which French is a subject of study and a language of instruction and communication with the permission of the Minister—instruction in the majority of courses should, in our opinion, be in English. However, in the special courses in the methodology of teaching English and French to French-speaking pupils in elementary schools, French as well as English should be used in instruction. Opportunities for practice teaching in both English and French should also be provided. We recommend

that, in the professional preparation of teachers for publicly supported elementary schools in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication with the permission of the Minister, special courses be provided in the methodology of teaching English and French to French-speaking elementary school pupils and be conducted, where necessary, in the French language.

78. The special courses in the methodology of teaching English and French to French-speaking pupils might be provided in the junior colleges of education at Ottawa and North Bay, where elementary school classes in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication will be available for practice-teaching purposes. Admission to these special courses should not be limited to students of French racial origin, but should continue to be open to any prospective teacher competent in both the English and French languages and otherwise qualified. Nor should the validity of the teaching certificates of the graduates of these courses be limited to schools in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication with the permission of the Minister of Education; on the contrary, these certificates should be valid for teaching purposes in any publicly supported elementary school. It is our belief that a co-ordinated programme of this type will assist in the

¹See Chapter XXII.

attainment of a unified educational system, and that it will yield beneficial results through the association with each other of students who speak different mother tongues.

79. We have recommended elsewhere that prospective teachers for elementary schools who hold a university degree approved by the Minister as to standard and content of courses be enabled to secure training through a supplementary course forming a part of the one-year course in the Ontario College of Education. The time will surely come when an increasing number of candidates for admission to the Ontario College of Education who are university graduates and proficient in both English and French will wish to take a special supplementary course qualifying them to teach in an elementary school in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication. When in the opinion of the Minister of Education circumstances warrant, we believe that courses in the methodology of teaching English and French to French-speaking elementary school pupils should be included in the supplementary course offered at the Ontario College of Education leading to a certificate valid in elementary schools.

ADVANCED FRENCH COURSES IN PUBLICLY SUPPORTED
POST-ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

80. Special French courses for French-speaking pupils have been introduced in secondary schools in the following centres: Alexandria, Cornwall, Embrun, Espanola, Hawkesbury, Hearst, Iroquois Falls, Kapuskasing, Kirkland Lake, Lafontaine, Mattawa, North Bay, North Essex (Belle River), Ottawa, Paincourt, Penetanguishene, Plantagenet, Rockland, Smooth Rock Falls, Sturgeon Falls, Sudbury, Tilbury, Timmins, and Van-kleek Hill. It was apparently with reference to these schools that the Inter-Church Committee on Protestant-Roman Catholic Relations, in Brief 113, stated:

They now have their own French High and Continuation Schools in which French is the dominant subject, and in most of these schools the staff is almost entirely French. They now have their own French High School Inspector who alone inspects the French teaching in these High Schools.

81. There are no publicly supported "French High and Continuation Schools" in Ontario. There are, however, 25 secondary schools in which, as authorized under Circular 46, special French courses for French-speaking pupils have been introduced. Nor is French the "dominant subject". It is one of many subjects, with a specified allotment of time as set forth in Circular 46, and English is the sole language used in instruction, except in class periods when a language other than English is taught as a subject. It is true that many of the teachers in these schools are of French racial origin, but all hold teaching certificates valid in Ontario. The inspection of the secondary schools in which these special courses are offered differs

from that of other secondary schools in one respect only: the inspection of the special French courses is assigned as one of the duties of a high school inspector of French racial origin.

82. In the programme of the new secondary schools and junior colleges, as recommended in Chapter V, special courses in French may be provided for those students qualified to take this advanced work. Where these are offered, however, English will be the sole language of instruction and communication, except when a language other than English is being taught as a subject of study. Post-elementary schools in which special courses in French are introduced as subjects of study will be administered by a regional post-elementary school board or regional board of education, and they will be subject to the same statutes and regulations as other post-elementary schools. The decision to introduce special courses in French will rest with the local post-elementary school board. The situation will in no wise be different from that of any post-elementary school board which wishes to adapt the provincial curriculum and courses of study to meet the needs of its own area. The schools in which such provision is made will be inspected, as part of their duties, by the regional superintendent or regional director of education, or their assistants, in the case of secondary schools, and by officials of the Minister in the case of junior colleges. During the period of transition, it may be necessary and advantageous to have special inspection by officials of the Minister of the classes in which special courses in French are taught. Normally, however, the inspection of post-elementary schools in which special courses in French are being offered will be conducted by the supervisors who inspect other post-elementary schools in the region.

83. In the reorganized educational system, supervision of special courses in French in post-elementary schools will not fall within the jurisdiction of either the Supervisor of English Instruction or the Supervisor of French Instruction. In the *Report of the Minister of Education* at the present time, the Director of French Instruction reports upon elementary schools in which French is "a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister", upon secondary school classes in which "advanced French" is taught, upon an annual provincial contest among French-speaking students enrolled in grades XII and XIII (the two provincial winners of which are awarded scholarships by the Association canadienne-française d'Éducation d'Ontario), and he incorporates a brief statement regarding teachers in training at the University of Ottawa Normal School. It seems strange to us that an official report on classes in secondary schools should be given in the report of the Director of French Instruction rather than in that of the Superintendent of Secondary Education. Further, a report upon teachers in training in the University of Ottawa Normal School belongs not in the report of the Director of French Instruction, but in that of the Superintendent of Professional Training, where, as a matter of fact, the same

data are given. Apparently, the Director of French Instruction either has been asked to report, or has assumed the duty of reporting, upon all schools in the province in which special courses in French are offered for French-speaking pupils.

84. Our examination of the Report of the Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee has convinced us that the intention was that the Director of English Instruction and the Director of French Instruction should have responsibility, under the Chief Inspector of Public and Separate Schools,¹ only for supervision of instruction in elementary schools in which French is "a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister of Education". Under our recommendations, the Supervisor of English Instruction and the Supervisor of French Instruction will be responsible directly to the Superintendent of Elementary Education and will have responsibility only for the supervision of instruction in English and French, respectively, in elementary schools in which French is a subject of study and language of instruction and communication with the permission of the Minister of Education.

CORRESPONDENCE COURSES

85. As stated elsewhere, correspondence courses prepared by the Department of Education are available to those who, for various reasons, cannot attend an elementary or secondary school. This service is available to French-speaking children; it was initiated in September, 1942, with grade I courses and later extended to include the courses and examinations authorized under Circular 46 for public and separate schools "attended by French-speaking pupils". As stated in the report of the Director of French Instruction,² dated July 15th, 1949, "All the courses for pupils of Grade I to Grade VIII have been available since September, 1946."

86. We believe that French-speaking children who are in need of correspondence courses should have an opportunity to develop proficiency in the French language, where their parents or guardians desire that they do so. But these pupils must also have the opportunity, through correspondence courses, to become proficient in English. For the teaching of French-speaking pupils enrolled in correspondence courses in the elementary school grades, the use of French, in addition to English, as a language of instruction and communication should be permitted; for the teaching through correspondence courses of those enrolled in post-elementary school grades, the use of the French language should be limited to instruction in the special courses in advanced French.

87. We recommend

that in correspondence courses conducted by the Department of Education the following procedures apply:

¹This official is now known as Superintendent of Elementary Education.

²*Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1948, p. 37.*

- (i) *for a French-speaking pupil enrolled in an elementary school grade, where the parent or guardian so requests, French may be a subject of study; and, in teaching him, French may be used, in addition to English, as a language of instruction and communication;*
- (ii) *for a French-speaking pupil enrolled in a post-elementary school grade, where the parent or guardian so requests, special courses in advanced French may be provided as subjects of study;*
- (iii) *for a French-speaking pupil enrolled in a post-elementary school grade, English shall be the sole language of instruction and communication, except that instruction in languages other than English may be conducted in the language being taught.*

CHAPTER XVIII

ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF SEPARATE SCHOOLS IN ONTARIO

1. For the most part, the schools of the general educational system in Ontario are "public", supported by all ratepayers on the same basis, and open to all children without restriction as to race, religion, or economic status. From the beginning of public education in our province, the general principle has been accepted that publicly supported schools should be undenominational. Thus, although the inculcation of Christian ideals has always been stressed, the creed of a particular religious denomination has never found a place in the school programme. There is but one exception; one special form of our publicly supported elementary schools, commonly called "separate", is denominational. Separate schools include Roman Catholic separate schools and Protestant separate schools, and did include until 1891—unhappily, a division on the basis of race or colour—Coloured separate schools.

2. For more than one hundred years, provision has been made in the statutes for the establishment and operation of separate schools publicly supported through local tax rates on their supporters and through legislative grants. For many years, however, there have been no Coloured separate schools, although the provision for their establishment and operation remains in the statutes; and there is no evidence of even the remotest possibility that our educational system will ever again be divided on such a basis. Similarly, Protestant separate schools today have few, if any, active proponents. There were only three such schools in 1947-48, with 5 teachers and a total average daily attendance of only 122 pupils. Protestant separate schools receive little public attention.¹ But the situation is very different with respect to Roman Catholic separate schools, which have steadily increased in number over the years. Accordingly, our discussion in this chapter will be confined, except for incidental reference to the two other types of separate schools, to the origin and development of Roman Catholic separate schools.

¹For the purpose of official statistics, Protestant separate schools are frequently grouped with, or classified as, public schools. The most recent (1948) *Report of the Minister of Education*, for example, has omitted the usual set of Tables of data relating to their operation.

3. A Roman Catholic is not compelled by law to support a Roman Catholic separate school, but he may voluntarily elect to do so under certain conditions and, in this event, is exempt from the payment of rates imposed for the support of public schools. Not all Roman Catholics support Roman Catholic separate schools; many prefer to support public schools. Nor is a Roman Catholic parent or guardian compelled by law to send his child or ward to a Roman Catholic separate school, although, if he is a supporter of it, he is legally entitled to do so. It is a generally recognized fact that many Roman Catholic parents prefer to have their children attend public schools. This seems to be supported by statistics. The 1941 census data show that, of the total population of the province, 23.3 per cent were Roman Catholic.¹ Of the total number of children in the age group 5-14 years inclusive, 28.0 per cent were Roman Catholic.¹ Of the total number of pupils enrolled in elementary schools in 1947-48, however, less than 20 per cent were enrolled in Roman Catholic separate schools. In a few urban centres, 90 per cent or more of the children of Roman Catholic parents attend Roman Catholic separate schools; but in most areas the percentage is normally much lower. For the province as a whole, we estimate that probably less than two-thirds of the children of Roman Catholic parents are enrolled in separate schools.

4. There has been a relatively rapid growth in the proportionate number of Roman Catholic separate schools and in their enrolment, as compared with all elementary schools. We give the relevant statistics, for ten-year intervals, in Table 1. In 1947-48, 863 (12.7 per cent) of the 6,813 elementary schools were Roman Catholic separate, enrolling 111,413 pupils (19.7 per cent) of the total enrolment of 564,529 in all elementary schools. This represents roughly a five-fold increase over the percentages of 1857.

5. The general situation with regard to the staffing and maintenance of these schools at the present time may be inferred from the following figures. Of the 18,692 full-time teachers engaged in elementary schools during 1947-48, 3,516 (18.8 per cent) were employed in Roman Catholic separate schools. As of July, 1948, of the total of 4,037 elementary school administrative units, 663² (16.4 per cent) were Roman Catholic separate. The cost per pupil of average daily attendance was reported to be \$72.64 for Roman Catholic separate schools, as compared with \$129.04 for public schools. For the calendar year 1948, statistics reported by trustee boards³ show that, for the province as a whole, the local assessment per regular classroom was \$75,994 for Roman Catholic separate schools, as compared with \$223,148 for public schools—a disparity in local financial resources of three to one in favour of public schools. Of the total revenue of \$62,054,155 from all sources for all elementary schools in 1948, \$7,779,408 (12.5 per cent) was

¹Including Greek Catholics.

²Including 24 union separate school boards.

³*Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1948*, pp. 168 and 175.

received by Roman Catholic separate school boards. For the province as a whole, public schools received 31.7 per cent of their total revenue in provincial grants and other payments, as compared with 39.0 per cent received by Roman Catholic separate schools.

6. Since they are a special form of elementary school only, Roman Catholic separate schools have not, until fairly recently, offered secondary school courses. About 50 years ago, however, permission was given to public and separate school boards to offer the secondary school courses of grades IX and X in their respective schools, in what are now termed

TABLE 1
GROWTH OF ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOLS (1847-1947)
(As compared with that of all elementary schools)

Year	Schools			Enrolment		
	Total Elementary	Roman Catholic Separate	% Roman Catholic Separate	Total Elementary	Roman Catholic Separate	% Roman Catholic Separate
1847	2,727	^a	—	124,829	^a	—
1857	3,831	100	2.6	282,601	9,964	3.5
1867	4,422	161	3.6	401,643	18,924	4.7
1877	5,140	185	3.6	490,860	24,952	5.1
1887	5,506	229	4.2	493,212	30,373	6.2
1897	5,914	340	5.7	494,876	41,620	8.4
1907	6,268	449	7.2	465,012	51,502	11.1
1917	6,651	548	8.2	528,484	70,048	13.3
1927	7,036	724	10.3	634,592	101,072	15.9
1937-38 ^b	7,209	832	11.5	557,014 ^c	102,505 ^c	18.4
1947-48 ^b	6,813	863	12.7	564,529 ^d	111,413 ^d	19.7

^aData not available for 1847; Ryerson reported in 1847 "It appears also that . . . there are only forty-one Separate Schools in Upper Canada".

^bSchool-year.

^cMay enrolment only.

^dNet enrolment only.

fifth classes. Further, for 40 years a public or a separate school board has been permitted, subject to the regulations and to the approval of the Minister, to operate a continuation school,¹ offering secondary school courses of grades IX to XIII inclusive. At present, Roman Catholic separate schools frequently provide secondary school courses in fifth classes, even in urban centres where secondary schools are readily accessible, and two continuation schools,² are, in effect,³ operated by Roman Catholic separate school boards.

7. In many respects, Roman Catholic separate schools operate under the same conditions as public schools. Both are subject to the regulations of the Minister of Education, follow the provincial programme of studies for ele-

¹See paragraphs 39-45 inclusive, below.

²At Eganville and Westport; these are listed in official statistics as Roman Catholic continuation schools. In each case, there is another continuation school located in the same urban centre, not operated by the Roman Catholic separate school board.

³Actually operated by a continuation school board in each case, but this is the separate school board constituted as a continuation school board for continuation school purposes.

mentary schools, are inspected by officials of the Minister, and have their prospective teachers trained in provincial normal schools and certificated under the same prescribed conditions. In the main, the teachers in both enjoy similar conditions of service. But Roman Catholic separate schools, as denominational schools, provide denominational religious instruction.¹ And, as has been the case for nearly 100 years, the statutory provisions for Roman Catholic separate schools are incorporated in a separate Act.² Although in some respects the provisions are parallel with those for public schools, in others they differ markedly, as, for example, with respect to the establishment of schools, over which, in the case of separate schools, even the Minister of Education has no control. Hence, throughout most of our history the special provisions for separate schools have not been consolidated with the general provisions for common or public schools.

8. From the passing of the first Act relating exclusively to Roman Catholic separate schools in 1855 up to the present day, the history and development of these schools have been determined in large measure by statutory provisions and by the changes which have been made therein from time to time. Our constitution, as set forth in the *British North America Act*, protects the rights and privileges "with respect to denominational schools which any class of persons have *by law*³ in the Province at the Union". Both the proponents and opponents of separate schools have pressed their claims for legislative action; and legislation provides the key to both the origin and the development of Roman Catholic separate schools. To this we now turn, both in order that the position of these schools in our educational system today may be understood, and in order that it may be evident to those who study our findings why we have found it necessary to recommend the continuance of the division of our elementary school system into two forms—public schools and separate schools. We deem ourselves bound by the limitations imposed by statute; we are not free to plan a new educational system unhampered by the past.

9. In our interpretation of legislation and other historical evidence we have sought to be objective. Where we quote statements or reported statements of those closely associated with the problems of separate schools and with the legislation of the past century, we accept them as authoritative expressions of the contemporary understanding and agreement as to the position of these schools except where we have been able to find a contemporary contradiction or qualification.

LEGISLATION AFFECTING SEPARATE SCHOOLS PRIOR TO CONFEDERATION

10. As set out in earlier chapters, the first schools in Upper Canada were private, supported by voluntary subscriptions and fees. The clergy were

¹Although not specifically authorized by statute or regulation so to do.

²*The Separate Schools Act*, Part II, R.S.O., 1937, Ch. 362, Secs. 16-110.

³Italics ours.

frequently leaders in education, and it is not surprising that some schools were in effect denominational. While the Legislature voted public funds and enacted a statute as early as 1816 "to encourage the education of youth in Common Schools",¹ no distinction was made between schools on a sectarian basis.

11. In 1839 the Legislature of Upper Canada appointed a commission to inquire into the state of education in Upper Canada. It recommended, among other things, that the control of common schools be vested in a provincial board of commissioners. An Act² dealing with the common school system, which was passed in 1841 during the first session of the Legislature for the United Province of Canada, provided for the establishment of what are now known as separate schools. The sessional papers of 1841 disclose that before the passing of the Act a petition was submitted to the Legislature by Dr. John Strachan, at that time the Church of England Bishop of Toronto, urging the establishment of denominational schools supported at least in part by public funds. A second petition by Dr. Remegius Gaulin, the Roman Catholic Bishop of Kingston, opposed the proposed Bill for the establishment of common schools. Neither petition appears to have gained its objective. Section XI of the Act provided as follows:

XI. Provided always, and be it enacted, that whenever any number of the Inhabitants of any Township or Parish professing a religious faith different from that of the majority of the Inhabitants of such Township or Parish, shall dissent from the regulations, arrangements, or proceedings of the Common School Commissioners, with reference to any Common School in such Township or Parish, it shall be lawful for the Inhabitants so dissenting, collectively, to signify such dissent in writing to the Clerk of the District Council, with the name or names of one or more persons elected by them as their Trustee or Trustees, for the purposes of this Act; and the said District Clerk shall forthwith furnish a certified copy thereof to the District Treasurer; and it shall be lawful for such dissenting Inhabitants, by and through such Trustee or Trustees, who for that purpose shall hold and exercise all the rights, powers and authorities, and be subject to the obligations and liabilities, hereinbefore assigned to and imposed upon the Common School Commissioners, to establish and maintain one or more Common Schools in the manner, and subject to the visitation, conditions, rules and obligations, in this Act provided with reference to other Common Schools, and to receive from the District Treasurer their due proportion, according to their number, of the monies appropriated by Law, and raised by assessment for the support of Common Schools, in the School District or Districts in which the said Inhabitants reside, in the same manner as if the Common Schools so to be established and maintained under such Trustee or Trustees, were established and maintained under the said Common School Commissioners, such monies to be paid by the District Treasurer upon the warrant of the said Trustee or Trustees.

12. This is the first appearance of any legislative provision for the establishment and maintenance of "separate" common schools. They could

¹J. G. Hodgins, *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada*, Vol. I, 1790-1830, Toronto: Warwick Bros. & Rutter, 1894, p. 102.

²4 & 5 Vict., Ch. 18, S.P.C.

be established only by a minority professing a religious faith different from that of the majority of the inhabitants of any township or parish. But before such minority acquired the right, they were required to signify *in writing* to the clerk of the district council their dissent from the regulations, arrangements, or proceedings of the common school commissioners. The requirement that a notice of dissent be in writing was thus recognized at the very outset.

13. The enactment of 1841 proved unsatisfactory to the people of Upper Canada. As a result, it was repealed by an Act of the Legislature of 1843,¹ which provided for the establishment and maintenance of common schools in that part of the Province of Canada formerly known as Upper Canada. The establishment of a separate school under this new statute depended not on the dissent of a minority of the inhabitants of a township or parish who professed a religious faith different from that of the majority, but on the religious faith of the teacher of the common school. Further, the wording of the provision was changed from "Inhabitants of any Township or Parish" to "Freeholders or Householders of any School District, or within the limits assigned to any Town or City School". The pertinent Sections of the Act of 1843 are as follows:

LV. And be it enacted, that in all cases, wherein the Teacher of any such School^[2] shall happen to be a Roman Catholic, the Protestant Inhabitants shall be entitled to have a School with a Teacher of their own religious persuasion, upon the application of ten or more resident Freeholders or Householders of any School District, or within the limits assigned to any Town or City School; And in like manner, when the Teacher of any such School shall happen to be a Protestant, the Roman Catholic Inhabitants shall have a separate School, with a Teacher of their own religious persuasion, upon a like application.

LVI. And be it enacted, that such applications shall be made in writing, signed with the names of each resident Freeholder or Householder, and addressed and delivered to the Township, Town or City Superintendent; and such application shall contain the names of three Trustees, who shall be the Trustees of such separate Schools; and upon the compliance of such Trustees, and of the Township, Town or City Superintendent, with the requirements of this Act, such school shall be entitled to receive its share of the public appropriation, according to the number of Children of the religious persuasion who shall attend such separate School, which share shall be settled and adjudged by the Township, Town or City Superintendent, subject to an appeal to the County Superintendent; and all such separate Schools shall be subject to the visitations, conditions, rules and obligations, provided in this Act with reference to other Common Schools or to other Town or City Schools established under this Act.

After Dr. Ryerson had been appointed Superintendent of Schools in 1844 and had studied various European and American school systems, he recommended in 1846 that the provincial system of education be universal and that property generally be taxed for the support of common schools. But, although many changes in the general school law were effected by an Act

¹7 Vict., Ch. 29, S.P.C.

²The reference is to the common schools of Upper Canada.

of the Legislature in 1846¹ which repealed the Act of 1843, the provisions as to separate schools were substantially retained.

14. An Act of 1847² constituted each city and incorporated town a corporation for all common school purposes and gave to the councils of the cities and boards of police commissioners of the towns the powers which in the districts were exercisable by the district municipal councils. In this Act is found the first use of the term "denominational" in legislative enactments relating to education in Upper Canada. Section V, in part, reads as follows:

V. . . . it shall be the duty of the Board of Trustees for such City or Town . . .
Thirdly,—To determine the number, sites and description of Schools which shall be established and maintained in such City and Town . . . and whether such school or schools shall be denominational or mixed . . .

This provision repealed the right of 10 or more Protestant or Roman Catholic inhabitants to have a "School, with a Teacher of their own religious persuasion", as provided in the Act of 1843.

15. The next school Act,³ passed on the 30th of May, 1849, contained no provision for separate schools and was repealed by a new Common Schools Act passed on July 24, 1850.⁴ This, in effect, re-enacted the combined provisions of the general school Acts of 1846 and 1847. It restored the earlier provision for the establishment of separate schools, and extended the provision to coloured people. In short, the statute now enabled 12 heads of families, being Roman Catholics, to petition for the establishment of a separate school if the teacher in the common school were a Protestant; similarly, 12 heads of families, being Protestant, could do likewise if the teacher were a Roman Catholic. A separate school so established was to share in the "School Fund",⁵ for the sole purpose of paying the salaries of qualified teachers, according to the average attendance of pupils as compared with the average attendance of pupils in the common schools of the same municipality. An amendment in 1851,⁶ removing in part the restriction that only one separate school could be established in a municipality, provided that a separate school could be established in each ward, or in two or more wards united, in each city or town.

16. In 1852, as appears from the correspondence of Dr. Ryerson with Bishop Charbonnel,⁷ an agitation for increased grants to separate schools was directed toward the government; and the trustees of the Roman Catholic separate school of Belleville brought an action in the courts against the

¹9 Vict., Ch. 20, S.P.C.

²10 & 11 Vict., Ch. 19.

³12 Vict. Ch. 83.

⁴13 & 14 Vict., Ch. 48.

⁵The "Common School Fund" was defined as follows in the Act: ". . . the sum of money apportioned annually by the Chief Superintendent of Schools to each County, Township, City, Town or Village, and at least an equal sum raised annually by local assessment . . ."

⁶14 & 15 Vict., Ch. 3.

⁷Cited in J. G. Hodgins, *The Legislation and History of Separate Schools in Upper Canada*, pp. 61-63.

school trustees of the Town of Belleville¹ to compel the latter to apply a portion of all the school moneys they might raise, to meet the cost of the erection and repairs of separate school buildings and the salaries of separate school teachers. The trustees of the separate school were unsuccessful.

17. As a result of dissatisfaction with existing statutory provisions, the Supplementary School Act of 1853² was passed. The following is an analysis of the fourth Section of the Act as it related to Roman Catholic separate schools:

- (1) Those subscribing to the support of a separate school an amount equal to what they would otherwise have to pay for the support of common schools were relieved from the payment of such rates for public common schools.
- (2) Each separate school was to share in the legislative grant, but not in the municipal assessment.
- (3) Exemption from school rates was to be granted only during the period of sending children to, or subscribing toward the support of, the separate school.
- (4) The separate school trustees were to send to the local superintendent of schools a half-yearly return of the names of supporters of separate schools, the amounts subscribed, and the names of the children attending.
- (5) The local superintendent was to send the names of supporters of separate schools to the clerk of the municipality; and the clerk was to omit such names from the assessment roll, except in case a rate for a school building had been imposed before the establishment of such separate school.
- (6) The provisions of the 13th Section of the school Act of 1850 were to apply to trustees and teachers of separate schools (i.e., in regard to penalties for false returns).
- (7) Separate school trustees were to be a corporation, with power to impose, levy, and collect school rates or subscriptions.

18. In a "Pastoral Address on the Upper Canada Supplementary School Act of 1853", dated July 9, 1853, Bishop Charbonnel apparently expressed satisfaction with these provisions in the following words:

Owing to the equity of our Legislature, dearly beloved brethren, the Catholic minority of Upper Canada are to enjoy, for the education of their children, the same advantages enjoyed by the Protestant minority of Lower Canada.³

Later, in a special report to the Legislative Assembly in 1858 Ryerson made it clear that, in his opinion, the provision for separate schools in the Act of 1853 was "the largest and last concession that could be obtained from Upper Canada":

¹10 *U.C.Q.B. Reports* 469.

²16 & 17 Vict., Ch. 185, S.P.C.

³Quoted in J. G. Hodgins, *The Legislation and History of Separate Schools in Upper Canada*, p. 71.

1. In the Winter of 1852 and 1853, I made an Official Tour of Upper Canada . . . I consulted the most intelligent and experienced men in School matters in the several Counties . . . I think I am warranted in saying that those intelligent men of all parties, whom I consulted without reserve, unanimously agreed to those Sections of the Separate School Section of the Draft Bill, but, were also strongly of the opinion, with myself, that no further concession in that direction should be made under any circumstances, or could be made, without endangering the whole National School System, and violating individual and Municipal rights. After having completed my Tour, I proceeded to Quebec in March, 1853, to submit to the favourable consideration of the Government the Draft of Bill, as revised and improved by extensive consultations with practical men in all parts of Upper Canada,—stating it, as a result of much consultation,—that the Fourth Section of it was the largest and last concession that could be obtained from Upper Canada on the subject of Separate Schools . . . The Bill was introduced and passed without a division, and became the Supplementary School Act of 1853. After the passing of that Act the Roman Catholic Ecclesiastics and the Newspaper Press under their control, expressed their satisfaction with, and eulogized the Separate School section of it . . .¹

19. Despite apparent satisfaction with the amendments effected by the Supplementary School Act of 1853, an intensive campaign for new legislation was shortly begun, directed by the Roman Catholic Bishops of Kingston, Toronto, and Bytown.

20. Hodgins quotes² extensively from correspondence and documents exchanged at this period between the Roman Catholic Bishops and various public men of the day, including Ryerson. Although the quotations are too extensive to be given here, they deserve study by legislators and educationists. Among the documents is a draft of a Bill prepared by the three Bishops,³ with a signed declaration that “nothing short of the above [the terms of the draft Bill] will satisfy the conscientious convictions of the Catholics of this Province”. There was severe criticism of the proposed Bill by Ryerson and others. Ryerson pointed out that it “contemplates the complete destruction of our Public School System . . .”⁴ Although the draft Bill was twice submitted, the government did not proceed with it.

21. In the meantime another Bill had been introduced in the Legislative Council by Sir Etienne Taché in May, 1855. Subject to some amendments, this Bill was passed by the House and was given royal assent on May 30, 1855, and has since then been known as “The Taché Act”.⁵ Under this Act, the trustees duly elected by Roman Catholics for a separate school were accorded the same powers in respect to separate schools as were exercised by trustees of common schools in respect to common schools under the

¹J. G. Hodgins, *Historical and Other Papers and Documents*, Vol. II, 1792-1853, Toronto: King's Printer, 1911, p. 124.

²J. G. Hodgins, *The Legislation and History of Separate Schools in Upper Canada*, pp. 70-92.

³*Ibid.*, pp. 85-87.

⁴*Ibid.*, p. 91.

⁵*An Act to amend the laws relating to Separate Schools in Upper Canada*. 18 Vict., Ch. 131, S.P.C.

provisions of *The Upper Canada School Act of 1850* and the supplementary Act of 1853. These included the power to impose, levy, and collect school rates or subscriptions upon and from persons sending children to, or subscribing toward the support of, such separate schools. Other noteworthy provisions of the Taché Act were as follows: supporters of separate schools were exempted from the payment of rates for common schools and common school libraries; every separate school established under the Act was entitled to "a share in the fund annually granted by the Legislature . . . for the support of Common Schools, according to the average number of pupils attending such school . . . as compared with the whole average number of pupils attending school in the same City, Town, or Village or Township", but was not entitled to any part or portion of school moneys arising or accruing from local assessment for common school purposes; the Chief Superintendent was required to determine the proportion the trustees were entitled to receive out of the legislative grant and to pay the amount to the trustees; no separate school having less than an average attendance of 15 was to share in the legislative grant; the election of any trustee or trustees became void unless a separate school was established within two months of the date of the election of such trustee or trustees.

22. No review of the successive enactments of this period can give an adequate picture of the agitations, controversies, and struggles which ensued—on the one hand, to obtain greater rights or concessions for separate schools, and, on the other, to safeguard and achieve a strong and efficient non-sectarian public school system. The writings and statements of contemporaries are of inestimable value in assessing the reasons for, and the nature of, the agreement which culminated in the legislation which ultimately took shape. No man had a more intimate knowledge of the whole problem than had Egerton Ryerson. His statements are therefore of the greatest importance, especially when read in conjunction with those of the advocates of more extreme, and therefore more sharply conflicting, views. That Ryerson was considered to be fair and moderate in his approach to the separate school question is best demonstrated by the words of the sponsor of the Roman Catholic Separate Schools Act of 1863, Mr. R. W. Scott. In the Senate, on April 4, 1894, the latter, in making a statement in regard to the passing of the Act of 1863 and in speaking of Ryerson, said ". . . it is due to his memory to say, that I always found him ready to meet the wishes of the minority;—that he exhibited no prejudice or bigotry . . ."¹.

23. It is, indeed, abundantly clear from the records that Ryerson at all times recognized and respected the deeply rooted and sincere religious convictions of the Roman Catholic exponents of separate schools. He earnestly tried, by granting some special privileges to Roman Catholics, to achieve that measure of agreement which would end the insistent controversy

¹J. G. Hodgins, *The Legislation and History of Separate Schools in Upper Canada*, p. 167.

on the subject. In this endeavour he had the active co-operation and sympathy of the Hon. John A. Macdonald, but he encountered the vigorous opposition of the Hon. George Brown, who considered Ryerson to be allied with the Roman Catholic hierarchy as a foe of the common school system.

24. The intensity of the controversy was typified, and no doubt magnified, by the position taken by Bishop Charbonnel of Toronto, as expressed in his 1856 Lenten Pastoral:

Catholic Electors in this Country, who do not use their electoral power in behalf of Separate Schools are guilty of mortal sin. Likewise Parents who do not make the sacrifices necessary to secure such Schools, or send their children to Mixed Schools. Moreover, the Confessor who would give absolution to such Parents, Electors, or Legislators, as support Mixed Schools to the prejudice of Separate Schools, would be guilty of a mortal sin.¹

25. In 1858 a report which Ryerson had been asked specially to prepare was tabled in the Legislature. In it, referring to the Taché Act, he said:

But the provisions of this Act, as modified under the auspices of the Attorney General for Upper Canada, and in accordance with the wishes of the Upper Canada Members of the Legislature, having been restricted to the Roman Catholics, under the sanction of certain of whose Ecclesiastical Dignitaries it was prepared, are, in my opinion, quite as consistent with the integrity and efficiency of our General School System as the Separate School provisions of the preceding School Acts, and not so convenient for the supporters of Separate Schools as the Fourth Section of the Supplementary School Act of 1853.²

26. In the same report, Dr. Ryerson made the following comments, which are of significance in any study of this problem in the light they throw on the accepted facts and the general situation of that day:

The first is, that, until 1850 the leading Men and Newspaper Press of all parties acquiesced in the Separate School provisions of the Law. I do not recollect that there was even a discussion on the subject, either in, or out, of Parliament, or any objection to it from any quarter.

A second remark is, that, until 1852, Separate Schools were never advocated as a theory, much less as a doctrine, and less still as an article of faith. No parent was ever considered guilty of sin, much less of 'mortal sin', for sending his child to a Public, or Mixed, School . . . Separate Schools were designed for, and almost, if not entirely, confined to, places where the then strong, (more so than now), and often exasperated, feelings between the Irish Protestants and Roman Catholics did not permit them to unite in the school education of their children . . . But what was before had recourse to, under certain circumstances, was afterwards demanded without reference to circumstances; and what was before desired as a protection against insult and oppression, was afterwards announced as a doctrine of conscience, and advocated as an instrument of Religious propagandism.

This leads me to a third remark, namely, that certain dignitaries of the Roman Catholic Church in Upper Canada, for whose Members the Separate School provisions of the School Law were specially designed, have assumed since

¹J. G. Hodgins, *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada*, Vol. XIII, 1856-1858, Toronto: King's Printer, 1906, p. 270.

²J. G. Hodgins, *Historical and Other Papers and Documents*, Vol. II, 1792-1853, (1911), pp. 124-125.

1852, a threefold position, essentially different from what they had ever before professed. (1) They have advocated Separate Schools, (not as a protection against wrong in particular cases, but) as an Institution and Agency of their Church, and as a Dogma of Faith and a Rule of Duty, binding upon all their adherents, and in all places. (2) They have advocated the support of these Schools by Municipal Taxation, as well as by Legislative Grant, and that according to the number of their Church population, and not according to the number of children they might teach, or even according to the number of those who might desire Separate Schools for their children,—thus leaving their own Church adherents without any right of individual choice, and the Municipalities, or Common School Trustees, without any power to levy a School Rate, to erect a School House, or furnish a School, or support a Teacher, or for any School purpose whatever, unless a corresponding sum, according to population, was given in support of the Roman Catholic Church Schools. (3) They have, in order to build up their own Schools at the expense of the Public Schools, and to promote the other objects of their Church organization, attacked the character of the Common Schools generally as nurseries of vice, rather than of virtue; as sinks of iniquity, instead of fountains of knowledge; and avowed their great and ultimate object to be the destruction of the National School System of Upper Canada, and have invoked aid from Lower Canada to accomplish it.¹

27. The special report concluded with an expression of Ryerson's views, as follows:

My belief is, that in view of the past, present, and future, the Separate School Sections of the School Law ought not to be interfered with, either by making an iota of concession to the unreasonable demands of ultra-religious propagandists, or by taking away an iota of the rights granted to, and possessed by, Roman Catholics during nearly twenty years . . . I believe that the greatest calamity that could happen to the National School System of Upper Canada would be to identify it with any political party, to degrade it into an engine, a battle ground, or football, of political party conflict . . . The interests of national education are certainly above those of political party, and what has been agreed by all parties to introduce into the Statute Book, and to continue there for so many years, may still be allowed to remain there without inconsistency, or compromise, of any party, especially as aggression from Lower Canada Legislators is no longer to be apprehended, and as Upper Canada cannot be otherwise than true to herself. Separate Schools, of which there are 108 out of 3,742 Common Schools, exist in only sixty-four out of 400 Municipalities in Upper Canada, and exist mostly in City, Town, and Village Municipalities, where they certainly do no harm to anybody, except to those who establish them. I think the reasons for allowing the Separate School provisions of the Law to remain on the Statute Book are stronger now than in past years, and I, therefore, respectfully submit the propriety and wisdom of this course to the consideration of all parties and of the Country at large.²

28. The public general statutes, whether passed by the Legislature of Upper Canada before the Act of Union of 1841 or by the Parliament of the Province of Canada to apply exclusively to Upper Canada, were revised and consolidated in 1859 into the Consolidated Statutes of Upper Canada. In the consolidation, the Taché Act of 1855 appears, with only very minor changes, as a part of Chapter LXV, entitled *An Act Respecting Separate Schools*.

¹*Ibid.*, p. 125.

²*Ibid.*, p. 128.

29. The next important attempt at separate school legislation was taken in 1860 with the introduction of a Bill by Richard William Scott, then member for Ottawa, one of the leading Roman Catholics in the Legislature. His first attempt failed, as did attempts made in the years 1861 and 1862; but in 1863 he was successful, and an Act¹ entitled *An Act to restore to Roman Catholics in Upper Canada certain Rights in respect to Separate Schools* was passed.

30. The importance of the Act of 1863 derives from the fact that it is the statutory basis of the rights and privileges preserved in respect to Roman Catholic separate schools by the *British North America Act*, which was passed by the Imperial Parliament in 1867. As it cannot be summarized adequately and copies are not generally available, it has been reproduced, together with Ryerson's commentaries on specific sections, as an appendix to this chapter. Since (as was claimed in Brief 113, submitted to us by the Inter-Church Committee on Protestant-Roman Catholic Relations) the Act of 1863 was apparently intended to constitute a final settlement of the Roman Catholic separate school problem in Upper Canada, we are justified in examining at considerable length the events which led up to it.

31. Dr. Ryerson later (in 1865) prepared a statement in which he gave an account of happenings preceding the introduction of Scott's Bill to the Legislature in 1863. The statement is, in part, as follows:²

In a day or two, Mr. Scott called upon me again, stating that, having consulted his friends, he acceded to my objections, and would propose to amend the Bill accordingly. I replied that I still objected to any other party than the Government conducting a Measure of that kind through the Legislature; but as he removed from the Bill what I considered objectionable, I would waive my objections to his proceeding with the Bill, and would aid him to get it passed, on two conditions;—First, that it should be assented to on the part of the Government, and therefore, passed on their responsibility; and secondly, that it should be accepted by the Authorities of his Church as a final settlement of the question. On this latter point, I addressed Mr. Scott as nearly as I can recollect to the following effect: 'You are only a private Member of Parliament; you are not a Representative of the Roman Catholic Church; you may assure the House, as well as myself, that this Bill is accepted as a final settlement of the Separate School question; so did Sir Etienne Taché, when he introduced the Separate School Bill of 1855, and even on its final passage its advocates assured the Legislature that it would put at rest the agitation of the Separate School question. Now it is said that they had no authority from the Heads of your Church to make such statements; and so it may be said in regard to any assurance you may give as to this measure being accepted as a final settlement of the question by the Authorities of your Church; and unless I am satisfied of that, I will do what I can to prevent the passage of your Bill, however modified, and will urge the standing upon the settlement of the question as agreed in 1855.'

Mr. Scott called upon me again, I think, the following day, and told me that he had seen the Archbishop of Quebec, the Head of the Roman Catholic Church

¹26 Vict., Ch. 5, S.P.C.

²J. G. Hodgins, *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada*, Vol. XVIII, 1863-65, Toronto: King's Printer, 1907, pp. 309-310.

in Canada, and that the Archbishop agreed to accept the Bill as I proposed; and that as the Archbishop was not able to go out himself, he proposed that his Secretary, the Very Reverend Vicar-General Cazeau, and the Very Reverend Vicar-General Macdonnell, who had been sent by the Bishops from Upper Canada to watch the legislation on educational matters, should meet me on the subject. I agreed to the meeting proposed, to be held the following day, in the Parliamentary Library. At that Meeting, Mr. Scott pointed out the erasures, and read over the clauses amended, to each of which in succession, the ecclesiastical representatives of the Roman Catholic Hierarchy in Canada, nodded assent as explicitly as did any couple ever nod assent to the vows contained in the Marriage Service. Then Mr. Scott had two copies of the Bill, as thus agreed upon, made out and compared,—the one for himself and the other for me, and proposed that we should all wait upon the Premier, and state to him the result. We proceeded to the Speaker's Room, where, (not I, but,) Mr. Scott, informed him of the result of our conference, and the two Venerable Ecclesiastics earnestly requested the Attorney-General to give the support of the Government to Mr. Scott's Bill, as a satisfactory and final settlement of the Separate School question. I think I may, without offence, appeal to the Honourable J. Sandfield Macdonald, for the correctness of what I have stated, in the interview referred to with him.

.

I affirm, therefore, that the passage of the Separate School Act of 1863, was an honourable compact between all parties concerned, for the final settlement of that question; and the renewed agitation of it, in less than two years, is not only a violation of that compact, but a warning to the people of Upper Canada, that if they are compelled again to legislate on the subject, their peace, and the safety of their institutions will require them to sweep the last vestiges of Separate School law from their Statute Books, and place all Religious Persuasions in the same relation of equality to their Schools as exists in the New England States, and in the neighbouring State of New York . . .

32. The Hon. George Brown, in his speech on the Resolutions relating to the Confederation of the Provinces, on February 8, 1865, in reference to the Act of 1863, said:

Now it is known to every honourable Member of this House that an Act was passed in 1863, as a final settlement of this sectarian controversy. I was not in Quebec at the time, but, if I had been here, I would have voted against that Bill, because it extended the facilities for establishing Separate Schools. It had, however, this good feature, that it was accepted by the Roman Catholic Authorities, and carried through Parliament as a final compromise of the question in Upper Canada. When, therefore, it was proposed that a provision should be inserted in the Confederation scheme to bind that compact of 1863, and declare it a final settlement, so that we should not be compelled, as we have been since 1849, to stand constantly to our arms, awaiting fresh attacks upon our Common School System, the proposition seemed to me to be one that was not rashly to be rejected . . . But assuredly I, for one, have not the slightest hesitation in accepting it as a necessary condition of the scheme of union, and doubly acceptable must it be in the eyes of honourable Gentlemen opposite, who were the authors of the Separate School Bill of 1863 . . .¹

33. The Hon. D'Arcy McGee, a Roman Catholic member, stated on February 9, 1865:

¹J. G. Hodgins, *Historical and Other Papers and Documents*, Vol. IV, 1858-1876, (1911), p. 23.

I will merely add in relation to an observation of my friend, (Honourable Mr. Brown), on the subject of the Roman Catholic Separate Schools of Upper Canada, that I accepted for my own part, as a finality, the amended Act of 1863. I did so because it granted all the Petitioners asked, and I think they ought to be satisfied. I will be no party to the reopening of the question; but I say this, that if there are to be any special guarantees or grants extended to the Protestant minority of Lower Canada, I think the Catholic minority in Upper Canada ought to be placed in precisely the same position—neither better nor worse . . .¹

34. After the publication of Dr. Ryerson's statement, the Very Reverend Vicar-General Cazeau and the Very Reverend Vicar-General Macdonnell wrote the following letter to the *Globe* on March 11, 1865:

As the names of the undersigned have been very improperly made use of in a pamphlet written, it appears, by Dr. Ryerson, Chief Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada, in connection with a Memorial from the Catholics of Upper Canada, requesting that some amendments should be made to the present Separate School Bill, we deem it proper, in order to elucidate the truth, to make the following declarations:—

First.—It is not true that one of us had been deputed by the Archbishop, and that the other represented the Catholic Bishops of Upper Canada, with a view to come to an understanding with Dr. Ryerson in reference to the amendments to be made to the Separate School Bill . . .

Second.—It is quite true that both of us, seeing that the Bill, as it was introduced by Mr. Scott, Member for Ottawa City, had no chance of being accepted by a majority of the House, owing to Dr. Ryerson's violent opposition to some of its measures, consented, reluctantly, to have it introduced with Dr. Ryerson's amendment to it, but upon their own responsibility, and without consulting either Bishop, or any other person; and because we considered it as some improvement on the former Separate School Law.

Third.—It is also true that we both consented to call upon Hon. John S. Macdonald, then Prime Minister, in company with Mr. Scott and Dr. Ryerson, and requested him to get the Government to support the Bill in its amended state; but it is not true, that they have ever considered the Bill as a final settlement of the Separate School question, or that we ever even thought of anything of the kind. We merely accepted it as an instalment of what they believed the Catholics of Upper Canada were justly entitled to, and, had we thought that a day would arrive when our conduct would receive a different construction, we would not have failed to protest against it.²

35. On March 18, 1865, Dr. Ryerson wrote a rejoinder to the letter in the *Globe*, part of which was as follows:

I will first note what has not been disputed . . . 3. That he [Mr. Scott] took steps to remove the two-fold objection to his proceeding with his Bill, by getting the assurance of the Authorities of his Church that the Bill would be accepted as an end of the Separate School agitation, and the assent of the Government to the passing of the Bill.

These facts are not disputed. The question then arises what object could have been proposed by Mr. Scott's asking me to meet Vicar General Cazeau and Macdonnell in the Parliamentary Library? It could not have been for me to meet

¹*Ibid.*, p. 24.

²J. G. Hodgins, *The Legislation and History of Separate Schools in Upper Canada*, pp. 179-180.

them as individuals, for it was not a fig's importance, or interest, to me whether they, as individuals, accepted the Bill, or not. Nor could I have consented for a moment to meet any Lower Canada Priest, (however respectable, or whatever his position,) as a private individual on the subject; for I privately and openly denied the right of any individuals of Lower Canada to interfere with such a question in Upper Canada. Besides, I knew nothing of Mr. Cazeau, or his relations to the Archbishop of Quebec. I had never seen him; I only met him in the capacity in which he was named to me by Mr. Scott, as the Archbishop of Quebec's Secretary and Representative, as Vicar General Macdonnell was mentioned as the Representative of the Roman Catholic Bishops of Upper Canada. The very proposal for me to meet them in any other capacity would have been absurd. Whether Mr. Scott defined their position and relations accurately or not, in his request to me to meet them, I have no means of knowing. But I have no doubt of it; and in no other than in their official capacity could I have met them on such a subject.

The next question is, what object could there have been in the interview at all except to satisfy me, and, through me, others, that the Bill would be accepted by the Authorities of the Roman Catholic Church, as a final settlement of the Separate School agitation? My objection to legislating at all on the subject was that it would only be the starting point and pretext of another Separate School agitation as there was no more assurance of the Bill being accepted by the Authorities of the Roman Catholic Church as a final settlement of the question than of the Taché Act of 1855. It was to furnish that very assurance that Mr. Scott desired me to meet Messrs. Cazeau and Macdonnell. That was the sole object and reason for the interview, as it was not to discuss any clauses of the Bill; nor was there any discussion of them. And whatever terms were employed, and whatever understanding was come to, must have been employed and understood in harmony with the sole object and reason of the interview.

Toronto, 18th of March, 1865

Egerton Ryerson.¹

To this there is no record of any reply—either public or private—by the two clergymen, or by anyone on their behalf or on behalf of the Hierarchy.²

36. The next legislation which had a bearing upon the separate school question is to be found in the Act of Confederation of 1867. Among the resolutions adopted by the House of Assembly of the Province of Canada on March 13, 1865, was the following:

43. *Resolved*, That the Local Legislature of each Province shall have power to make Laws respecting . . .

6. Education; saving the rights and privileges which the Protestant, or Catholic, minority in both Canadas may possess, as to their Denominational Schools, at the time when the Union goes into effect.³

On the basis of this resolution, the following provisions of the *British North America Act*⁴ passed by the Imperial Parliament in 1867 were founded:

(1) Nothing in any such Law shall prejudicially affect any Right or Privilege with respect to Denominational Schools which any Class of Persons have by Law in the Province at the Union:

¹J. G. Hodgins, *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada*, Vol. XIX, 1865-1867, Toronto: King's Printer, 1907, p. 8.

²See J. G. Hodgins, *The Legislation and History of Separate Schools in Upper Canada*, p. 182.

³*Ibid.*, p. 184.

⁴30 & 31 Vict., Ch. 3, S.U.K., Sec. 93.

(2) All the Powers, Privileges, and Duties at the Union, by Law conferred and imposed in Upper Canada on the Separate Schools and School Trustees of the Queen's Roman Catholic Subjects shall be and the same are hereby extended to the Dissentient Schools of the Queen's Protestant and Roman Catholic subjects in Quebec:

(3) Where in any Province a System of Separate or Dissentient Schools exists by Law at the Union or is thereafter established by the Legislature of the Province, an Appeal shall lie to the Governor General in Council from any Act or Decision of any Provincial Authority affecting any Right or Privilege of the Protestant or Roman Catholic Minority of the Queen's Subjects in relation to Education:

(4) In case any such Provincial Law as from Time to Time seems to the Governor General in Council requisite for the due Execution of the Provisions of this Section is not made, or in case any Decision of the Governor General in Council on any appeal under this Section is not duly executed by the proper Provincial Authority in that Behalf, then and in every such Case, and as far only as the Circumstances of each Case require, the Parliament of Canada may make remedial Laws for the due Execution of the Provisions of this Section and of any Decision of the Governor General in Council under this Section.

Thus the Legislature of Ontario may exclusively make laws in relation to education, subject to the foregoing provisions. Since no law so made may prejudicially affect any right or privilege with respect to denominational schools which any class of persons had by law in the province at Confederation, any safeguard enjoyed by Roman Catholic separate schools exists by virtue of their being denominational schools.

CHANGES SINCE CONFEDERATION IN LEGISLATION AFFECTING ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOLS

37. In the years since Confederation, changes in provincial legislation affecting Roman Catholic separate schools in Ontario have been made which, it has been argued, have resulted in an enlargement of the rights and privileges existing at the time of Confederation. Be this as it may, it is evident that the provisions of Section 93 of the *British North America Act* of 1867 with respect to denominational schools refer only to rights and privileges held at the time of Confederation, and do not extend to any statutory rights or privileges which may have been granted since that time. Thus, there is no constitutional impediment to the power of the Legislature of Ontario to alter or to repeal any rights or privileges granted in respect to Roman Catholic separate schools through post-Confederation enactments.

38. To make clear in our review the effect of legislation relating to Roman Catholic separate schools enacted in our province since 1867, we have organized the material topically. Some enactments of little or no significance have been omitted; other enactments have been included, although they may appear to have been related only to minor administrative or procedural matters, because they had, in fact, wide implications.

Roman Catholic Separate Schools and Secondary School Education

39. Under Section 73 of the present *Separate Schools Act*, a Roman Catholic separate school board of a municipality or in a school section or

union school section has the same rights, powers, and privileges with respect to the establishment and maintenance of continuation schools as the public school board of the municipality, school section, or union school section.

40. Continuation classes were first introduced in the year 1896. In *The Public Schools Act*¹ of that year it was enacted that the school corporation of any municipality or section in which there was no high school should have power to establish a continuation class for pupils who had completed the course of study prescribed for public schools and had passed the public school leaving examination, and to provide suitable accommodation for such class. The course of study for continuation classes was to be that prescribed for the primary examination of the Education Department. According to a circular issued at the time by the Minister, the object of the Legislature was to enable pupils who had passed the entrance examination to a high school or had completed a public school course to continue their studies at least as far as the end of the second form of the high school.

41. The Act of 1896 was amended in 1899² to extend the power to conduct a continuation class to the school corporation of a separate school. Under this amending legislation, boards of trustees, whether of public or separate schools, might agree to conduct continuation classes in one of their schools.

42. *The Public Schools Act* of 1901³ made no provision for continuation classes in separate schools, but it was amended in 1902⁴ so as to make such provision; and in 1906⁵ it was enacted that the trustees of public and separate schools might unite to form continuation classes.

43. In 1908 an Act⁶ was passed whereby trustees were given power, where there was no high school, to establish and maintain courses of study in addition to the courses already provided for the fifth form of public schools. The classes so authorized were to be known as "continuation schools". Fifth classes were also mentioned, and it was enacted that pupils should be admitted into continuation schools and fifth classes in accordance with the regulations governing the admission of pupils into high schools. The Minister in his report for the year stated, "By the legislation of 1908 the former Continuation Classes were divided into Continuation Schools and Fifth Classes." In the same year, the powers of separate school trustees with reference to the establishment of continuation schools and fifth classes were made the same as those of public school trustees, and regulations were published covering the courses of study and the apportionment of the legislative grant.⁷

44. A separate Act⁸ regarding continuation schools was passed in 1909. By the regulations of the same year, the courses of study in continuation schools were to be those prescribed for high schools, except that the special

¹59 Vict., Ch. 70, S.O.

²1 Edw. VII, Ch. 39, S.O.

³6 Edw. VII, Ch. 53, S.O.

⁴8 Edw. VII, Ch. 68, S.O.

⁵62 Vict. (2), Ch. 36, S.O.

⁶2 Edw. VII, Ch. 41, S.O.

⁷8 Edw. VII, Ch. 67, S.O.

⁸9 Edw. VII, Ch. 90, S.O.

consent of the inspector was required before certain courses could be included. This Act has been amended many times and now appears in the Revised Statutes of Ontario, 1937, as Chapter 359.

45. The Separate Schools Act of 1863, and therefore the *British North America Act* of 1867, did not give the right to Roman Catholics to establish continuation schools, continuation classes, or fifth classes. As stated above, such rights were conferred in 1899 and in 1908.

Administration of Roman Catholic Separate Schools

46. For the most part, legislation relating to the administration of Roman Catholic separate schools has remained virtually unchanged since Confederation. But a number of amendments are significant.

47. Section 9 of the Separate Schools Act of 1863 stated that "The Trustees of Separate Schools . . . shall perform the same duties and be subject to the same penalties as Trustees of Common Schools . . ." This Section was included in subsequent separate schools Acts until 1886, when it was omitted from the Act of that year.

48. The present *Separate Schools Act* provides, by Section 45 (*m*), that it shall be the duty of every board to exercise all such powers and perform all such duties of public school boards as are applicable in the case of separate schools, except in matters regarding which other provision is made by that Act. Section 45(*m*), however, refers only to the "powers" and "duties" of separate school trustees, and does not subject such trustees, as did the Act of 1863, to the same *penalties* as public school trustees. Certain penalties and prohibitions are contained in Sections 94 to 110 inclusive, of the present *Separate Schools Act*; but these are not as extensive as those contained in Sections 133 to 154 inclusive, of the present *Public Schools Act*. A departure has been made from the general imposition of the penalties of the Act of 1863.

49. Pursuant to Section 9 of the Act of 1863, Roman Catholic separate school teachers were made liable to the same obligations and penalties as common school teachers. There is now no such sweeping law in force, except that teachers in both public and separate schools are subject to the general regulations of the Department of Education. Section 48 of the present *Separate Schools Act* defines the duties (obligations) of the teachers in those schools. Public school teachers are required, in Section 103 of *The Public Schools Act*, *inter alia*, to use the English language in instruction and in all communications with pupils in regard to discipline and in the management of the school, except where it is impracticable to do so by reason of the pupil not understanding English; "to inculcate by precept and example respect for religion and the principles of Christian morality and the highest regard for truth, justice, loyalty, love of country, humanity, benevolence, sobriety, industry, frugality, purity, temperance and all other virtues"; and "to give assiduous attention to the health and comfort of the

pupils . . .” None of these duties of teachers in public schools is included in *The Separate Schools Act*. Granted, some of them may seem obvious and perhaps should be the subject of regulation rather than statutory enactments. The fact remains, however, that the law of 1863 with respect to the obligations of separate school teachers has been changed.

50. Certain other requirements of the Act of 1863 have, during the passage of the years, been omitted from subsequent Acts dealing with Roman Catholic separate schools. One of these is Section 24, which contained the specific obligation of separate school trustees to establish a school within three months of the election of the board of trustees; otherwise the election would become void. The present *Separate Schools Act*, in Section 45(*d*), states that it is the duty of every board to “provide adequate accommodation and legally qualified teachers, according to the provisions of this Act and the regulations . . .”, but this has not the force of the law in effect at Confederation. In any event, notwithstanding this present duty, and possibly owing to the removal of the consequence contained in Section 24 of the Act of 1863, a few Roman Catholic separate school corporations have been formed, have failed to establish a school, but have continued in existence and received legislative grants. Under the statutes in effect at Confederation, if such a corporation had not established a separate school under its management within three months of the election of the trustees it would, *ipso facto*, have ceased to exist.

51. A private Act of the Legislature was passed in the year 1941,¹ entitled *An Act Respecting the Board of Trustees of the Roman Catholic Separate Schools for the City of Toronto*, under which certain municipalities and parts of municipalities, as set out in Schedule A to the Act, were for separate school purposes united and administered by one district board. They thus formed, in effect, a metropolitan school area. The formation of a metropolitan area is a right acquired by these particular Roman Catholics subsequent to Confederation.

52. The Act of 1863 provided for the formation of a separate school union section composed of separate school sections, although the Act contained no definition of what constituted a separate school section. Each separate school union section thus formed was to be deemed one school section for all Roman Catholic separate school purposes. The present *Separate Schools Act* (Section 32) does not use the expression “separate school section”, but provides that the majority of the supporters of each of the separate schools situate in two or more public school sections may form a union school, and every union separate school thus formed shall be deemed one school for all Roman Catholic separate school purposes. The present provision permitting the establishment of a union separate school is at variance with the provision of the Act of 1863. In addition, the establishment and operation of central schools or larger units of administration are controlled by the basic

¹ 5 Geo. VI, Ch. 82, S.O.

law in force at Confederation that no Roman Catholic may be a supporter of a separate school unless he resides within three miles in a direct line of the site of the school-house.

53. Perhaps one of the most important changes in administration since 1863 is the acquisition by Roman Catholics of the right to establish separate schools in those parts of Ontario without municipal organization. This right is based on Section 21 of *The Separate Schools Act* of 1937, first enacted in the year 1899,¹ sub-section (1) of which is as follows:

In unorganized townships and in any part of Ontario not surveyed into townships any number of heads of families, not less than ten, who are Roman Catholics, may, at a public meeting called for that purpose, elect three of their number as school trustees, and the trustees so elected shall have all the powers of public school boards in unorganized townships, and shall in all other respects be subject to the provisions of the Act.

Sub-section (2) of this Section provides that, on receipt of notice by the Department of Education that such a school has been established, the Minister may pay to the board out of the appropriation made by the Legislature for public and separate schools such sum for maintenance as may be approved by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council.

54. The Act of 1863 made no such provisions. In order to establish a separate school under Section 2 of that Act, not less than five persons, being heads of families and freeholders or householders, resident within a school section of any township, incorporated village, or town, or within any ward of any city or town, and being Roman Catholics, could establish a Roman Catholic separate school. It should be noted that, in 1863, such persons were required to be resident within a school section. There is no definition of "school section" in the Act of 1863, or in any other Separate Schools Act; but the Common Schools Act of 1859² provided that each township council was to form portions of the township where no schools had been established into school sections. A definition of "school section" first appears in *The Public Schools Act* of 1891,³ as follows: "'School Section' shall mean the municipality or any portion thereof, or any portion of two or more municipalities under one public school corporation." This definition has been changed in subsequent Public Schools Acts, but such changes need not be considered here.

Assessments, Borrowing Powers, and Grants⁴

55. According to the Taché Act, a person paying rates who gave notice to the clerk of the municipality in which a separate school was situated that he was a Roman Catholic and a supporter of such school was exempted from the payment of all rates imposed for the support of common schools during the year next following and during subsequent years, except for rates imposed before the establishment of the separate school. The notice had to be

¹62 Vict. (2), Ch. 37, Sec. 1, S.O.

²54 Vict., Ch. 55, Sec. 2 (5), S.O.

³C.S.U.C., Ch. 64, Sec. 39.

⁴See also Chapter XXVII.

given each year; otherwise the ratepayer would not be exempted from the payment of rates for common schools.

56. According to Section 14 of the Act of 1863, a written notice had to be given but did not need to be renewed annually by the supporter personally. It was the duty of the trustees of every separate school to transmit to the clerk of the municipality each year a correct list of the names and residences of all persons supporting the separate schools under their management; and every ratepayer whose name did not appear on such a list was to be rated for the support of common schools. Thus, the trustees were to give the yearly notice which previously had to be given by the ratepayer. The Act also provided that by giving a written notice a Roman Catholic could withdraw his support from a separate school, except for the payment of rates imposed before the date of his withdrawal. Section 19 stated that no person should be deemed a supporter of a separate school unless he resided within three miles in a direct line of the site of the school-house. This, then, was the situation at Confederation. But many changes have been made since 1867.

57. That part of Section 14 requiring the trustees to submit a correct list of the supporters of their separate schools was repealed in 1886. It would appear that the repeal was a consequence of the introduction in 1879 of the following clause in *An Act Respecting Public, Separate and High Schools*¹ of that year:

3. In any case where the trustees of any Roman Catholic Separate School avail themselves of the provisions contained in the seventy-eighth section of the Public Schools Act, for the purpose (amongst others) of ascertaining through the assessor of the Municipality the persons who are the supporters of Separate Schools in such Municipality, the assessor shall accept the statement of, or made on behalf of, any ratepayer that he is a Roman Catholic, as sufficient *prima facie* evidence for placing such person in the proper column of the Assessment Roll for Separate School supporters, or if the assessor knows personally any ratepayer to be a Roman Catholic this shall also be sufficient for placing him in such last mentioned column.

58. This Section was subsequently repealed, and no equivalent Section appears in any of the school Acts. But, by Section 62 of the present *Separate Schools Act*, the clerk of the municipality is required to keep an index book, in which is entered the name of each person who has given to him a notice in writing that he "is a Roman Catholic and a supporter of a separate school in or contiguous to the municipality". The present *Assessment Act* provides that, where such an index book is prepared, the assessor shall be guided by it in ascertaining who have given the requisite notices. Where the index book does not show a ratepayer to be a supporter of separate schools:

The assessor . . . shall accept the statement of the ratepayer, or a statement made on his behalf and by his authority, and not otherwise, that he is a Roman Catholic, as sufficient *prima facie* evidence for placing such person in the proper column

¹42 Vict., Ch. 34, Sec. 26, S.O.

of the assessment roll for separate school supporters, or if the assessor knows personally any ratepayer to be a Roman Catholic this shall also be sufficient for placing him in such last mentioned column.¹

59. A Roman Catholic who wishes to be assessed as a separate school supporter is not now required by law to give the written notice prescribed by the Act of 1863 or by Section 55 of the present *Separate Schools Act*. This was decided by the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court of Ontario in the case of *McCarty vs. Hird*.² At present, if the assessor has evidence that a ratepayer is a Roman Catholic, he may justly assess him as a separate school supporter. Hence a ratepayer so assessed who has not given the written notice required by statute and who does not wish to be a separate school supporter is now compelled, in order to regain his status as a public school supporter, to take action by appeal to a Court of Revision. Such action may be more difficult, in many ways, than "electing" to become a supporter of a separate school.

60. It has been noted that, under Section 19 of the Act of 1863, no person was to be deemed a supporter of a separate school unless he resided within three miles in a direct line of the school-house. This provision is expressed in Section 56 of the present *Separate Schools Act*, but it has been modified so that, under certain circumstances, it no longer applies. Under Section 60 of the present *Separate Schools Act*, any non-resident who owns unoccupied land in the municipality and who is otherwise qualified may, on giving the notice provided for by *The Assessment Act*, require all such land in the municipality in which the separate school is situated or within three miles in a direct line of the separate school to be assessed for the purposes of the separate school.

61. Another change is that which occurred in regard to lands held by a corporation. In Section 33 of the *Consolidated Common School Act of Upper Canada of 1859*,³ provision was made for assessment of the lands or property of a "Company" for the support of common schools. At that time, the assessment of lands or property owned or held by bodies corporate, such as corporate administrators of estates, joint-stock companies, public utilities, crown corporations, and co-operatives, may have been of little significance. In any event, no provision was made in the *Separate Schools Act of 1863* for allotting all or any part of the taxes derived from such assessment to the support of separate schools. In 1886 an amendment was made to *The Separate Schools Act* whereby a corporation by giving notice to the clerk of any municipality in which there was a separate school might "require the whole or any part of the lands of which such corporation is either the owner and occupant, or not being the owner is the tenant, occupant or actual possessor, and the whole or any proportion of the business assessment or other assessments of such corporation . . . to be entered, rated and assessed for the

¹R.S.O. 1937, Ch. 272, Sec. 30.

²1947 *Ontario Reports*, p. 615.

³22 Vict., Ch. 64, C.S.U.C.

purposes of such separate school”.¹ This is limited, in sub-section 3 of the present Act, by the provision that “Unless all the stock or shares are held by Roman Catholics the share or portion of such land and business or other assessments to be so rated and assessed shall not bear a greater proportion to the whole of such assessments than the amount of the stock or shares so held bears to the whole amount of the stock or shares.” It was held by the Privy Council, in the case of *Board of Education for City of Windsor vs. Ford Motor Company of Canada Limited and Others*,² that the onus is on the corporation to establish the facts of the situation as set forth in sub-section 3.

62. Section 66 of the present *Separate Schools Act* can hardly be considered an outgrowth of Section 14 of the Act of 1863, which provided that “Every person paying rates . . . who . . . has given to the Clerk of the Municipality notice in writing that he is a Roman Catholic, and a supporter of a Separate School . . . shall be exempted from the payment of all rates imposed for the support of Common Schools . . .” The word “person” then, as now, included any body corporate; but this section requires the “person” to be a Roman Catholic, and a body corporate—which is required to give the notice under Section 66 of the present Act—cannot be a Roman Catholic. Whatever benefits or rights Roman Catholic separate school supporters have obtained under Section 66 of the present *Separate Schools Act* have been acquired by them since Confederation.

63. At the time of Confederation trustees of separate schools had the same right to borrow money as the trustees of common schools. The municipal council could borrow at the request of the trustees or could grant the trustees authority to borrow any sums of money required for school purposes, and then cause to be levied each year upon the taxable property a sum sufficient to pay the interest and also a sum sufficient to pay off the principal within ten years. This method of borrowing continued for both public and separate school trustees until the year 1879, when an Act of the Legislature³ made it necessary for a high school board or public school corporation to apply to the municipal council in order to raise or borrow the required money. On the other hand, the trustees of any separate school were given full power, as a body corporate, to borrow money for school purposes and to make valid mortgages and other instruments for the security and payment of such borrowed money upon the school-house property and premises or upon any other real or personal property vested in them, or upon the separate school rates. In 1887 it was provided⁴ that such mortgages and other instruments could be made in the form of debentures, to be a charge on the same property and rates.

64. The above are, to all intents and purposes, the respective powers

¹Section 66 of the present *Separate Schools Act*.

²Reported in 1941, 110 *Law Journal, Privy Council*, p. 30.

³42 Vict., Ch. 34, S.O.

⁴50 Vict., Ch. 41, S.O.

possessed by public¹ and separate school boards to borrow money today. The method, but not the right to borrow, has changed since 1863.

65. For at least 150 years it has been the policy in Ontario for the Legislature to contribute to the support of schools out of public funds.² In 1789 and 1797 grants of land in Upper Canada were made for what were afterwards known as "grammar" schools, and in 1807³ provision was made for granting £800 annually for public (grammar) schools. Successive governments granted different amounts, and, when separate schools were recognized by statute in 1841,⁴ it was provided in the Act that the trustees of such schools should receive from the district treasurer a due proportion, according to the number of such schools, of the moneys appropriated by law and raised by assessment for the support of common schools.

66. The right of Roman Catholic separate schools to share in legislative grants was crystallized in Section 20 of the Act of 1863:

20. Every Separate School shall be entitled to a share in the fund annually granted by the Legislature of this Province for the support of Common Schools, and shall be entitled also to a share in all other public grants, investments and allotments for Common School purposes^[5] now made or hereafter to be made by the Province or the Municipal authorities, according to the average number of pupils attending such school during the twelve next preceding months, or during the number of months which may have elapsed from the establishment of a new Separate School, as compared with the whole average number of pupils attending School in the same City, Town, Village or Township.

67. Roman Catholic separate schools, therefore, had (and still have) a right "to a share in the fund annually granted by the Legislature" for the support of common schools. In June, 1865, a circular letter issued by Ryerson described "the basis of Apportionment" as follows:

. . . to the several Counties, Cities, Towns, Villages, and Townships for this year, [the basis] is the population, as reported in the Census of 1861, which was also adopted last year, and I have no more generally accurate statistics of a later date.

Where Separate Schools exist, the sum apportioned to the Municipality has been divided among the Common and Roman Catholic Separate Schools therein, according to the average attendance of Pupils at both classes of Schools during last year, as reported by the Trustees.⁶

Since that date, many changes have been made in the bases of apportionment of the amount voted by the Legislature for the support of elementary schools.⁷

¹See, however, powers of public school trustees in unorganized townships and unsurveyed districts to raise funds, as set forth in Sections 42 and 48 of *The Public Schools Act*.

²See also Chapter XXVII.

³47 Geo. III, Ch. 6, S.U.C.

⁴4 & 5 Vict., Ch. 18, S.P.C.

⁵According to Ryerson's comments on this Section, the latter sources of revenue were restricted to the Clergy Reserve Fund.

⁶J. G. Hodgins, *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada*, Vol. XVIII, 1863-1865, p. 261.

⁷See Chapter XXVII.

68. In the year 1926, the Roman Catholic separate school trustees of the Township of Tiny in Simcoe County contended, among other things, that separate school trustees had a right to share in the legislative grants for "common school purposes", pursuant to the Act of 1863, before any sums were paid to public schools for special purposes. The question was finally settled by the Privy Council, whose advice to His Majesty may be found in the case of *Tiny Separate School Trustees vs. The King*, reported in 1928.¹ In order to understand the judgment, it is necessary to refer to Section 106 of *An Act Respecting Common Schools in Upper Canada* of 1859² (which was in force in the year 1863), under which it was the duty of the Chief Superintendent of Education to "apportion annually, on or before the first day of May, all moneys granted or provided by the Legislature for the support of Common Schools in Upper Canada, and not otherwise appropriated by law to the several Counties, Townships, Cities, Towns and Incorporated Villages according to the ratio of population in each, as compared with the whole population of Upper Canada . . ."

69. The judgment of the Privy Council was that the Legislature could, out of the moneys granted for all school purposes, appropriate certain sums for special purposes, and that the balance of the grant, *after making such appropriations*, was then divisible among the public and separate schools. Such appropriations would diminish what otherwise would go to the trustees of public and Roman Catholic separate schools. Viscount Haldane, who delivered the judgement, stated:

Whether the case is looked at from the point of view of regulation, or whether it is regarded from that of discretion in power of appropriation, the result is the same. It is indeed true that power to regulate merely does not imply a power to abolish . . . It may be that the new laws will hamper the freedom of the Roman Catholics in their denominational schools . . . but they are still left with separate schools . . .

70. At Confederation it was possible to ascertain what portion of the fund annually granted by the Legislature for the support of common schools in Upper Canada should go to a given municipality. A separate school in a municipality had a right to a share of the amount so granted to the municipality, based on the average number of pupils in attendance. However, average daily attendance has long since ceased to be the sole basis for the distribution of legislative grants, although it was one of those included in the grant scheme announced by the Minister of Education in 1950.

71. In the year 1945 an Act³ was passed providing that, subject to the approval of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, the Minister might make regulations "providing for the apportionment and distribution of all money appropriated or raised by this Legislature for educational purposes . . ." and "prescribing the conditions governing the payment of legislative grants". The

¹97 *Law Journal, Privy Council*, p. 69.

²C.S.U.C., Ch. 64, 1859.

³*The School Law Amendment Act*, 9 Geo. VI, Ch. 8, S.O. 1945 (2nd Session).

issue of "Circular Grants General No. 12" of that year contained regulations respecting the distribution of general legislative grants. It directed that distribution should be based in the case of urban public and separate schools on population and "approved cost", and in the case of rural public and separate schools on assessment per classroom and "approved cost". These bases prevailed until 1950.

APPENDIX TO CHAPTER XVIII¹
ACT of 1863

26 Vic. Cap. 5. Received Royal Assent, 5th May, 1863
An Act to restore to Roman Catholics in Upper Canada
certain rights in respect to Separate Schools.

Preamble

WHEREAS it is just and proper to restore to Roman Catholics in Upper Canada certain rights which they formerly enjoyed in respect to Separate Schools, and to bring the provisions of the Law respecting Separate Schools more in harmony with the provisions of the Law respecting Common Schools: Therefore, Her Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Legislative Council and Assembly of Canada, enacts as follows:—

Separate School Act of 1855 repealed

I. Sections eighteen to thirty-six, both inclusive, of chapter sixty-five of the Consolidated Statutes for Upper Canada, intituled, 'An Act respecting Separate Schools,' are hereby repealed, and the following shall be substituted in lieu thereof, and be deemed to form part of the said Act.

Five heads of families may call a meeting

II. Any number of persons, not less than five, being heads of families, and freeholders or householders, resident within any School section of any Township, Incorporated Village or Town, or within any ward of any City or Town, and being Roman Catholics, may convene a public meeting of persons desiring to establish a Separate School for Roman Catholics in such School Section or ward, for the election of Trustees for the management of the same.

Majority present to elect three Trustees

III. A majority of the persons present, being freeholders or householders, and being Roman Catholics, and not candidates for election as Trustees, may, at any such meeting, elect three persons resident within such section or an adjoining section to act as Trustees for the management of such Separate School, and any person, being a British subject, not less than twenty-one years of age, may be elected as a Trustee, whether he be a freeholder or householder, or not.

(*Note.*—In Common School Sections, any number present, however few, at a lawful meeting for the election of Trustees, can elect them. There is no reason for a different provision in regard to the number present for the election of Separate School Trustees.)

Notice of establishment of Separate School

IV. Notice in writing that such meeting has been held and of such election of Trustees, shall be given by the parties present at such meeting to the Reeve

¹This appendix is a copy of part of Ryerson's report comparing the Acts of 1855 and 1863. The comments on particular sections are his.

or head of the Municipality, or to the Chairman of the Board of Common School Trustees, in the Township, Incorporated Village, Town, or City in which such School is about to be established, designating by their names, professions and residences, the persons elected in the manner aforesaid, as Trustees for the management thereof; and every such notice shall be delivered to the proper officer by one of the Trustees so elected, and it shall be the duty of the officer receiving the same to endorse thereon the date of the receipt thereof, and to deliver a copy of the same so endorsed and duly certified by him to such Trustee, and from the day of the delivery and receipt of every such notice, or in the event of the neglect or refusal of such officer to deliver a copy so endorsed and certified, then from the day of the delivery of such notice, the Trustees therein named shall be a body corporate, under the name of 'The Trustees of the Roman Catholic Separate School for the Section number , in the township of , or for the Ward of , in the City or Town (as the case may be) or for the Village of , in the County of .' (a)

(a) These sections embrace the *eighteenth* to *twenty-second* sections inclusive of the existing Separate School Act of 1855, and are the same in substance as they; as are the *second* and *third* sections substantially the same as the *eighteenth* and *nineteenth* sections of the present Separate School Act.

Board of Separate School Trustees in Cities and Towns

V. The Trustees of Separate Schools heretofore elected, or hereafter to be elected according to the provisions of this Act, in the several Wards of any City or Town shall form one body Corporate, under the title of 'The Board of Trustees of the Roman Catholic Separate Schools for the City (or Town) of———' (b)

(b) This section is the substitute for the *twenty-third* section of the present Separate School Act [of 1855], and assimilates the provision of the law in regard to Separate Schools and their supporters, to that of the Common School Act.

Union of Separate Schools in one or more School Sections

VI. It shall be lawful for the majority of the rate-paying supporters of the Separate School, in each Separate School Section, whether the Sections be in the same or adjoining Municipalities, at a public meeting duly called by the Separate School Trustees of each such Section, to form such Sections into a Separate School Union Section, of which union of Sections the Trustees shall give notice within fifteen days to the Clerk or Clerks of the Municipality or Municipalities, and to the Chief Superintendent of Education; and each such Separate School Union Section thus formed, shall be deemed one School Section for all Roman Catholic Separate School purposes, and shall every year thereafter be represented by three Trustees, to be elected as in Common School Sections.

Union Separate School Section—Corporation formed

2. And the said Trustees shall form a body corporate, under the title of 'The Board of Trustees of the Roman Catholic United Separate Schools for the United Sections Nos. (as the case may be,) in the (as the case may be.)' (c)

(c) This clause or section is designed to provide that the supporters of Separate Schools may form *union* Sections, the same as they may now do in the Cities and Towns, and which supporters of Common Schools may also do, as provided in the 41st, 42nd, 43rd and 44th sections of the Consolidated Common School Act. Previous to 1855, the Township Councils prescribed the boundaries of Separate as well as of Common School Sections; but as the names of all the petitioners for a Separate School had to be included in the Separate School Section to be formed, they virtually formed their own Section.

By the Roman Catholic Separate School Act of 1855, the boundaries of a Separate School Section were made identical with those of the Common School Section, but no provision was made for the union of Separate Schools in adjoining Sections as had been made for the union of Common School Sections. This clause supplies the omission of the Roman Catholic Separate School Act of 1855.

Powers of Separate School Trustees

VII. The Trustees of Separate Schools forming a body corporate under this Act, shall have the power to impose, levy and collect School rates or subscriptions, upon and from persons sending children to or subscribing towards the support of such Schools, and shall have all the powers in respect of Separate Schools, that the Trustees of Common Schools have and possess under the provisions of the Act relating to Common Schools.(d)

(d) This section is the same as the *twenty-fourth* section of the present Roman Catholic Separate School Act.

Trustees may copy Assessment Roll of Municipality

VIII. The clerk or other officer of a Municipality within or adjoining which a Separate School is established, having possession of the Assessor's or Collector's roll of the said Municipality, shall allow any one of the said Trustees or their authorized collector to make a copy of such roll in so far as it relates to the persons supporting the Separate School under their charge.(e)

(e) There is no provision in the present Roman Catholic Separate School Act [of 1855], by which the Trustees or their collector can have access to the assessor's or collector's roll, as is provided by law, in regard to the Trustees of a Common School and their collector. This section supplies the omission.

Declaration of office by Separate School Trustees

IX. The Trustees of Separate Schools shall take and subscribe the following declaration before any Justice of the Peace, Reeve, or Chairman of the Board of Common Schools: 'I, , will truly and faithfully, to the best of my judgment and ability, discharge the duties of the office of School Trustee to which I have been elected:—and they shall perform the same duties and be subject to the same penalties as Trustees of Common Schools: and teachers of Separate Schools shall be liable to the same obligations and penalties as teachers of Common Schools.(f)

(f) This declaration of office is required of Common School Trustees by the Common School Amendment Act of 1860; and the duties and penalties here imposed upon Separate School trustees and teachers are the same as those imposed by the *twenty-fifth* section of the Roman Catholic Separate School Act of 1855.

Term of office of Separate School Trustees

X. The Trustees of Separate Schools shall remain respectively in office for the same periods of time that the Trustees for Common Schools do, and as is provided by the thirteenth section and its sub-sections, for the Common School Act of the Consolidated Statutes for Upper Canada; but no Trustee shall be re-elected without his consent, unless after the expiration of four years from the time he went out of office; Provided always, that whenever in any City or Town, divided into Wards, a united Board now exists, or shall be hereafter established, there shall be for every Ward two Trustees, each of whom, after the first election of Trustees, shall continue in office two years and until his successor has been elected, and one of such Trustees shall retire on the second Wednesday in January, yearly in rotation;

and provided also, that at the first meeting of the Trustees after the election on the second Wednesday in January next, it shall be determined by lot, which of the said Trustees, in each ward, shall retire from office at the time appointed for the then next annual Election, and the other shall continue in office for one year longer.(g)

(g) This section is a substitute for the *twenty-sixth* section of the Roman Catholic Separate School Act of 1855, and assimilates the Separate to the Common School law, in respect to the election of Trustees, and their continuance in office, in both sections, and cities and towns.

Period of office.—Time and mode of election

XI. After the establishment of any Separate School, the Trustees thereof shall hold office for the same period and be elected at the same time in each year that the Trustees of Common Schools are, and all the provisions of the Common School Act relating to the mode and time of election, appointments and duties of Chairman and Secretary at the annual meetings, term of office and manner of filling up vacancies, shall be deemed and held to apply to this Act. (h)

(h) This section contains a general provision for assimilating the provisions of the Separate and Common School Acts.

R. C. Children admitted from other School Sections

XII. The Trustees of Separate Schools may allow children from other School Sections, whose parents or lawful guardians are Roman Catholics, to be received into any Separate School under their management, at the request of such parents or guardians; and no children attending such School shall be included in the Return, hereafter required to be made to the Chief Superintendent of Education, unless they are Roman Catholics.(i)

(i) This section corresponds precisely with the *twenty-seventh* section of the Roman Catholic Separate School Act of 1855.

Teachers' Certificate of Qualification

XIII. The Teachers of Separate Schools under this Act shall be subject to the same examinations, and receive their Certificates of qualification in the same manner as Common School Teachers generally; provided that persons qualified by law as Teachers, either in Upper or Lower Canada, shall be considered qualified Teachers for the purposes of this Act. (j)

(j) This section is a substitute for the *twenty-eighth* section of the present Separate School Act [of 1855]; and is, all must admit, a very great improvement upon it.

*Supporters of Separate Schools exempted from
Common School Rates*

XIV. Every person paying rates, whether as proprietor or tenant, who, by himself or his agent, on or before the first day of March in any year, gives, or who, on or before the first day of March, of the present year, has given to the Clerk of the Municipality, notice in writing that he is a Roman Catholic, and a supporter of a Separate School situated in the said Municipality, or in a Municipality contiguous thereto, shall be exempted from the payment of all rates imposed for the support of Common Schools, and of Common School Libraries, or for the purchase of land or erection of buildings for Common School purposes, within the City, Town, Incorporated Village, or section in which he resides, for the then current year, and every subsequent year thereafter, while he continues a supporter of a

Separate School.—And such notice shall not be required to be renewed annually; and it shall be the duty of the Trustees of every Separate School to transmit to the Clerk of the Municipality or Clerks of Municipalities (as the case may be) on or before the first day of June in each year, a correct list of the names and residences of all persons supporting the Separate Schools under their management; and every rate-payer whose name shall not appear on such list shall be rated for the support of Common Schools. (*k*)

(*k*) This section is a substitute for the *twenty-ninth* section of the present Separate School Act [of 1855]. It substitutes the first day of *March* for the first day of *February*—which can cause inconvenience or disadvantage to nobody, as municipal rates for School purposes are never levied until long after March. The proprietor or tenant, by himself or *his agent*, gives notice; and it has already been legally decided that a notice by the agent of a proprietor or tenant is as valid, according to the present Separate School Act [of 1855], as a notice by himself in person, and is so accepted and acted upon. It is unjust, therefore, to omit expressing what is already held to be the law, merely to afford an opportunity and pretext for vexing and annoying individuals in certain localities. Another provision in this section is, that the *notice* shall not be repeated by the individual annually, but shall be repeated, with his address, by the trustees, as his agent. This is the practice which has already been pursued in some municipalities. In Lower Canada, the supporter of the dissentient or Separate School never repeats or renews his first notice as a supporter of such School; and why should the Roman Catholic be required to do that in Upper Canada which the Protestants are not required to do in Lower Canada, unless to inconvenience and annoy him as much as possible? This section requires each Roman Catholic, proprietor or tenant, to give notice to the Clerk of the Municipality when he desires to become a supporter of a Separate School; and the *eighteenth* requires him to give notice to the same clerk when he desires to cease being a supporter of such School; and in the interval, the trustees are required annually to give to same clerk (for the information of the municipal council in levying School rates) the *name* and *residence* of each supporter of a Separate School; and they are subject to a severe penalty in case they make an incorrect return.

Certificate of notice to be endorsed

XV. Every Clerk of a Municipality, upon receiving any such notice, shall deliver a certificate to the person giving such notice, to the effect that the same has been given, and showing the date of such notice.

Penalty for fraudulent notice

XVI. Any person who fraudulently gives any such notice, or wilfully makes any false statement therein, shall not thereby secure any exemption from rates, and shall be liable to a penalty of forty dollars, recoverable, with costs, before any Justice of the Peace, at the suit of the Municipality interested.

Exception as to Rates already imposed

XVII. Nothing in the last three preceding sections contained, shall exempt any person from paying any rate for the support of Common Schools or Common School Libraries, or for the erection of a School House or School Houses, imposed before the establishment of such Separate School.

*Persons may withdraw their support
from Separate Schools*

XVIII. Any Roman Catholic who may desire to withdraw his support from a Separate School, shall give notice in writing to the Clerk of the Municipality before the second Wednesday in January in any year, otherwise he shall be deemed a supporter of such School: Provided always, that any person who shall

have withdrawn his support from any Roman Catholic Separate School, shall not be exempted from paying any rate for the support of Separate Schools or Separate School Libraries, or for the erection of a Separate School House, imposed before the time of his withdrawing such support from the Separate School.

Supporters of Separate Schools defined

XIX. No person shall be deemed a supporter of any Separate School unless he resides within three miles (in a direct line) of the site of the School House. (l)

(l) No explanatory remarks are required; and no one will object respecting the directions given, and the restrictions and penalties imposed by the *fifteenth, sixteenth, seventeenth, eighteenth and nineteenth* sections of the Bill.

*Condition of sharing in Legislative School
and other grants*

XX. Every Separate School shall be entitled to a share in the fund annually granted by the Legislature of this Province for the support of Common Schools, and shall be entitled also to a share in all other public grants, investments and allotments for Common School purposes now made or hereafter to be made by the Province or the Municipal authorities, according to the average number of pupils attending such School during the twelve next preceding months, or during the number of months which may have elapsed from the establishment of a new Separate School, as compared with the whole average number of pupils attending School in the same City, Town, Village, or Township. (m)

(m) This section is a substitute for the first part of the thirty-third section of the present Separate School Act [of 1855]. The point of difference is, that this section gives Separate Schools the right of sharing in other 'Public Grants, investments, and allotments for Common School purposes' ['] than the Parliamentary School Grant. The only public grant or investment that can come within this provision, is the Clergy Reserve fund, when applied by Municipalities to Common School purposes. This fund is distributed by law among the several Municipalities according to the number of rate-payers in each—Roman Catholic rate-payers of course, as well as Protestant. This fund forms no part of the Common School fund, and is not subject to Common School regulations. When a Municipal Council chooses to apply the portion of the Clergy Reserve fund apportioned to its Municipality to Common School purposes, it ought to do so in the equal interest of all the ratepayers, and not in a way to exclude any portion. If the Common School law allows portions of those rate-payers, (both Protestant and Roman Catholic) to have Common Separate Schools, they are acting under law in availing themselves of this permission as much as those who avail themselves of the permission to establish Common Schools. For a Municipal Council to apply the share of the Clergy Reserve Fund placed under its control, to aid one class of these Schools and not the other, is as clearly to exclude one class of ratepayers from their rightful share of that fund as if they were proscribed by name. Some Municipal Councils have acted very justly and fairly in regard to both classes of Common Schools; and if any other Councils have done or should do otherwise, the Legislature should surely protect rights of the minority against any such proscription.

Shall not share in Municipal Assessment

XXI. Nothing herein contained shall entitle any such Separate School within any City, Town, Incorporated Village or Township, to any part or portion of school moneys arising or accruing from local assessment for Common School purposes within the City, Town, Village or Township, or the County or Union of Counties within which the City, Town, Village or Township is situate. (n)

(n) This section corresponds with the second proviso of the thirty-third section of the present Separate School Act [of 1855], and effectually protects all school moneys arising from local assessment against any claims in behalf of Separate Schools.

Return to be sent half-yearly to Chief Superintendent

XXII. The Trustees of each Separate School shall, on or before the thirtieth day of June and the thirty-first day of December of every year, transmit to the Chief Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada, a correct return of the names of the children attending such school, together with the average attendance during the six next preceding months, or during the number of months which have elapsed since the establishment thereof, and the number of months it has been so kept open; and the Chief Superintendent shall thereupon determine the proportion which the Trustees of such Separate School are entitled to receive out of the Legislative grant, and shall pay over the amount thereof to such Trustees.(r)

(r) This section is identical with the thirty-fourth section of the present Separate School Act [of 1855], except that part which requires the returns to be made on *oath*—a requirement never exacted of Common School Trustees, never required of Separate School Trustees before 1855—not required of the Trustees of Protestant Separate Schools in Lower Canada since 1856—and for which requirement no reason of justice or necessity exists, as the same penalties are imposed for making incorrect returns to obtain additional aid, as if they were made on *oath*.

It may here be remarked, that the first proviso in the *thirteenth* section of the present Separate School Act [of 1855] (which says 'that no Separate Schools shall be entitled to share in such fund unless the average number of pupils attending the same be fifteen or more,') has been omitted. It was contained in the Bill as first introduced, but was struck out at the suggestion of the Chief Superintendent, who stated it to be useless and inoperative—not required in regard to Common Schools, the average half-yearly attendance in some of which fell below fifteen—and although Separate Schools whose half-yearly attendance did not amount to fifteen, were not *legally entitled* to share in the Legislative School Grant, yet that any such school kept open by local liberality according to law by a legally qualified teacher, was *equitably* entitled to aid according to its working, whether its pupils numbered more or less than fifteen.

There is also another point on which a remark may here be made. It has been erroneously alleged that this Bill relaxes the existing law in regard to the time of keeping open schools each year. It will be seen by referring to the first part of the 33rd and the 34th section of the present Separate School Act [of 1855], that a Separate School is entitled to receive aid from the Legislative School Grant in proportion to the time (in connection with average attendance) it is kept open, whether more or less than six months and the *twenty-second* section of the Bill makes not the least change in that respect.

Who are Visitors of Separate Schools

XXIII. All Judges, Members of the Legislature, the heads of the Municipal bodies in their respective localities, the Chief Superintendent and Local Superintendent of Common Schools, and Clergymen of the Roman Catholic Church, shall be Visitors of Separate Schools.(s)

(s) Hitherto none but clergymen of the Roman Catholic Church have been admitted as visitors of Separate Schools. This section contains important and liberal provisions in the right direction.

The provisions of the *twenty-fourth* and *twenty-fifth* sections of the Bill need no remark, and will be objected to by none.

Election of Trustees void in certain cases

XXIV. The election of Trustees for any Separate School shall become void unless a Separate School be established under their management within three months from the election of such Trustees.

*Supporters of Roman Catholic Schools not to vote
at C. S. Election*

XXV. No person subscribing towards the support of a Separate School established as herein provided, or sending children thereto, shall be allowed to

vote at the election of any Trustee for a Common School in the City, Town, Village or Township in which such Separate School is situate.

Official Inspection of R. C. Separate Schools

XXVI. The Roman Catholic Separate Schools (with their Registers) shall be subject to such inspection as may be directed from time to time by the Chief Superintendent of Education, and shall be subject also to such regulations as may be imposed from time to time by the Council of Public Instruction for Upper Canada.(t)

(t) The provisions of this section have not existed in any previous Act in respect to separate Schools; they bring the Separate Schools as completely under the control of public regulations and inspection as the Common Schools.

Disagreement between R. C. Trustees and Officials

XXVII. In the event of any disagreement between Trustees of Roman Catholic Separate Schools, and Local Superintendents of Common Schools, or other municipal authorities, the case in dispute shall be referred to the equitable arbitrament of the Chief Superintendent of Education in Upper Canada; subject nevertheless to appeal to the Governor in Council, whose award shall be final in all cases.(u)

(u) This is also a new legal provision. The latter par of this section is needless, and is not contained in the Grammar or Common School Act, as all decisions of the Chief Superintendent may be appealed from to the Governor in Council. His decisions have been appealed from in several instances, but have in every instance been sustained.

Commencement of this Act

XXVIII. This Act shall come into force, and take effect, from and after the thirty-first day of December next: But all contracts and engagements made, and rates imposed, and all corporations formed under the Separate School Law, hereby repealed, shall remain in force as if made under the authority of this Act.¹

¹Annual Report of the Normal, Model, Grammar, and Common Schools, in Upper Canada, for the Year 1862. Quebec: Hunter, Rose & Co., 1863. Appendix G, pp. 160-170.

CHAPTER XIX

ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOLS IN THE REORGANIZED EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM¹

THE PROBLEM OF ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOLS

1. No phase of our inquiry has consumed more time or proved more difficult than that of Roman Catholic separate schools. Here we encountered a conflict of principles which still makes the problem as impossible of solution by agreement as it has been for the past hundred years. A minority of the Commission, who are submitting a separate report on the question of Roman Catholic separate schools, subscribe to the principle that "religion must permeate all education", and that, to achieve this goal in the education of Roman Catholic children, the schools attended by them must be "integrally [Roman] Catholic". While not departing from the belief that, in a Christian nation, religion should inspire education in the schools, the majority of the Commission are of opinion that the school is but one of the three great educative institutions—the home and the church being the others—and that a publicly supported school system should avoid the special doctrines and dogmas of any particular church, but should be governed by those fundamental principles of Christianity which are held in common by all men of good will.

2. It should be frankly stated that all members of the Commission entered upon their task with the hope that some satisfactory solution to the difficult problem of Roman Catholic separate schools could be found. The alternative proposals, which now form the bases of separate memoranda and a minority report, were advanced to the Commission as a whole and their practicability given full consideration. Long, earnest, frank, and friendly discussion ensued, but did not end in conclusive formulae or unanimity. The majority of the members felt that the minority proposals contemplated an unacceptable extension of the jurisdiction of separate schools and were, in so far as they related to administration, impracticable.

¹As we consider various representations made to us with respect to Roman Catholic separate schools, it should be noted that our discussion applies to all such schools, including those in which French will be a subject of study and language of instruction and communication with the permission of the Minister of Education. Chapters XVI and XVII should, therefore, be read in conjunction with this chapter.

No complete agreement could be achieved where the underlying philosophy was so divergent. Nor, indeed, were any of the Commissioners clothed with authority to enter into an agreement, even if such were possible, which now, and in the future, would be binding upon the parties concerned.

3. In a general approach to the problem of Roman Catholic separate schools, certain questions should perhaps be asked at the outset. Can a final solution of this problem be arrived at? If it can, by whom must it be achieved? If there is no finality possible in defining the scope of publicly supported separate schools, then what is the ultimate outcome to be? It may be conceded that there is no legal impediment to the enlargement of the privileges or rights of those who desire separate schools; the *British North America Act* prohibits only changes which would prejudice the rights and privileges held by law at the time of Confederation. If there is to be no finality, then will not the continued and repeated extensions of privileges result ultimately in two complete and separate branches of the publicly supported school system from kindergarten to university? If there is no finality, then what was meant by those proponents and opponents of Roman Catholic separate schools when they used the term "finality" nearly a century ago?

4. In publicly supported education in a democratic nation there must be equality of treatment. Broadly speaking, this is to be found in the great public school system introduced into this province by Ryerson, which was designed to accord equality of opportunity to all classes and creeds. Any provision for the contribution of public funds to a system of separate schools for any particular class of persons—on racial, religious, or other grounds—savours of discrimination on the one hand, or special privilege on the other. And any division of the publicly supported educational system detracts from the great value of the public school as a unifying force in a democracy. Moreover, if by granting the privilege of separating from the system of public schools we impose additional cost on the public generally, can such a concession be justified as equitable?

5. In this last respect, a point must be remembered which the general public all too frequently overlook. No right or privilege in our school system was granted at any time, or preserved, inferentially or otherwise, to the Roman Catholic Church or any other church as a religious body, organization, or denomination; the rights and privileges which may exist by law were granted to individual Roman Catholic and Protestant ratepayers. The basic right or privilege given to such a ratepayer was to elect to separate his support from the common or public school system and, in conjunction with others who were like-minded, to establish a separate school.

6. There is another right which is apt to be overlooked. Roman Catholics and Protestants who prefer, and choose, to support and have their

children educated in the public schools of the province have a statutory right to do so. This right of these free citizens of Ontario must not be prejudiced or jeopardized by any legislative enactment or regulation which would make it more difficult, or impossible, for them to exercise the right of full and unfettered freedom of election in the education of their children.

7. It has long been a recognized fundamental principle of our educational system that the schools shall be public and free. It follows that every child deemed capable of profiting from instruction has the right to attend, and that every ratepayer is compelled by law to support, public schools. A person paying rates for the support of public elementary schools, however, who voluntarily elects to become a supporter of separate schools may secure exemption from the payment of public elementary school rates. In this event, he forfeits the right of his children or wards to attend a public elementary school so long as he continues to be a separate school supporter.

8. Although public elementary schools and separate schools are subject to the same departmental regulations, follow the same official programme of studies, and are in receipt of general legislative grants, separate schools are not, in the full sense of the words, "public" and "free" to all children. No ratepayer is compelled by law to be a supporter of separate schools; he may voluntarily elect to do so, however, if properly qualified; and only the children or wards of those who so elect have the right to attend separate schools. Thus, separate schools are established by their voluntary supporters for the children of such supporters; and, it should be particularly noted, they cannot properly be termed schools for all Roman Catholics, or for all Protestants, or for all coloured persons, as a group.

9. As we proceed with our recommendations, the specific points outlined above should be borne in mind. We have seen that considerable light is thrown upon them by events and statements of the past. It was for this reason that, before discussing the recommendations which the majority of the Commission advance, we felt it essential to review briefly in the preceding chapter the origin of, and changes in legislation relating to, separate schools.

10. For many years the existence and growth of Roman Catholic separate schools have been subjects of acrimonious debate. As recently as 1934, a prominent Canadian educator wrote: "For nearly a century separate school and sectarian issues have operated as divisive influences in our national life."¹ The briefs and memoranda submitted to us bear witness to conflicting opinions still firmly held on these subjects. Accordingly, we feel impelled to refer to representations submitted on behalf of three major groups. The statements in these briefs probably represent, generally speaking, the opinions of the majority of our citizens.

11. Brief 201 was submitted by the Joint Legislation Committee of the Grand Orange Lodges of Ontario East and West, representing in an official

¹George M. Weir, *The Separate School Question in Canada*, Toronto: Ryerson, 1934, p. vii.

capacity the membership of the Orange Association in the Province of Ontario. The following extracts indicate the position taken by this organization in the matter of Roman Catholic separate schools:

. . . we submit that it is the duty and responsibility of the State and the State alone to provide for the education of all of its citizens.

What we believe is that a separate school system was forced upon the people of Ontario against their wish because of the political conditions of the period between 1841-67. We submit we are suffering from a great injustice and that it ought to be ended in a democratic way.

For this reason, and in the interests of unity, we recommend that the Act [the Separate Schools Act of 1863] should be repealed.

The time, we believe, has come for action. We believe the way should be prepared to have but one common primary school system in Ontario—the Public school system. The changes that have been made since Confederation in the Separate School Act permitting a separate school to be formed without a Public school being created first, as well as all other changes made since 1867, should be ended immediately.

Our Committee recognize that a very comprehensive and able brief on Protestant-Roman Catholic Relations has been submitted to the Royal Commission on Education by the Inter-Church Committee and with the mass of the recommendations made, we are in hearty agreement. The proposal that the terms set forth in the British North America Act with respect to the Separate Schools in Ontario, described as the "Confederation Settlement", be accepted as a permanent and final settlement, we regard as being much too generous in its nature;—as such a proposal fastens upon Ontario a system of Roman Catholic schools never agreed to by a direct vote of the people. We contend that no Church should be permitted to enjoy special privileges under the law and we look forward to the day when the Separate School system will be done away with by the people.

12. Brief 146 was submitted by the Ontario Catholic Education Council, on behalf of the Separate School Trustees' Association, the Bilingual School Trustees' Association, the Association de l'Enseignement Français de l'Ontario, and the Ontario English Catholic Teachers' Association. It must be considered along with Brief 196, submitted by the Catholic Bishops of Ontario, and Brief 206, submitted by St. Michael's College, Toronto. The following quotations indicate that these groups hold opinions differing sharply from those expressed in Brief 201:

Brief 196

As is recognized in the British North America Act, separate educational provisions must be made for Protestants and Catholics in Ontario as in Quebec.

Brief 206

The State has the duty of seeing to it that all its citizens are suitably educated. Whether it provides schools of its own, or encourages and helps private citizens or the Church to do so is perhaps a matter of choice, and the policy has varied. On the whole, it seems best that the State itself provide a large proportion of the necessary schools, giving due recognition to the rights of parents and the Church. In any case, whoever owns the schools, the State has the right of inspection to see

to it that schools are conducted efficiently, that public appropriations are properly spent, that nothing seditious is taught, but that, on the contrary, the intellectual, moral, and physical training are such as to insure not only a high quality of citizenship but the fullest possible personal development of the citizens consistent with the common good.

One thing, however, the State may not do. It may not become an arbiter in the realm of truth, for truth does not know national boundaries. It will not be tempted to do so except in the spheres of morality and religion. States have been known to impose their own morality, and even their own religion. We call that statism, or totalitarianism. The reaction from the extreme individualism of the past leaves us open to that danger. One safeguard against this danger is to recognize the rights of the family and of the Church. A practical way of doing this would be to organize education according to a pluralistic principle, whereby any considerable group of families might have a school of their own in which a course of studies common to all schools and of guaranteed quality would be integrated with religion, according to the faith of the parents.

Brief 146

The system of separate schools was adopted in recognition of the rights of different religious minorities, and it was not a privilege granted to Catholics. In essence, it was a recognition of the natural right of parents to control the kind of education to be given to their children. Ontario never has sanctioned, and we hope never will sanction, the totalitarian view that the child belongs to the State which may force on it teachings to which the parent objects. It is the parent who by nature has the function, the right and the duty of teaching his child. The State may, and under modern conditions must, assist the parent, and it has the right to enforce the performance of the parental duty of education, but it no right to usurp the natural authority of the parent. The teacher, whether in private or public school, acts with authority delegated by the parent.

Our position on the matter is that the religious training to be imparted to Catholic students must be according to our beliefs . . . We have never departed from this principle, even though we fully appreciate the constant and earnest effort of those in charge of our Department of Education "to lead the child to accept those ideals of conduct and endeavour which a Christian and democratic society approves", as stated in the present Ontario Programme of Studies for elementary grades. We have always held, and will continue to hold, that such instruction falls short of an ideal education, since it lacks what, in our view, are essential factors in a complete Christian education.

In modern conditions of society, the child, and therefore, the parent, needs teachers, doctors, nurses and also butchers, bakers, tailors, and so forth. The parent recognizes that these specialists must decide the techniques to be used in doing their own jobs. Nevertheless, *they act for the parent and not against his natural authority over his own child.* The choice of schools, the type of instruction to be imparted therein and the broad manner of its conduct must remain important parental prerogatives. In a true democracy such inalienable rights of parents must be respected.

The State has the obligation of assisting the parents in providing for the family. Since the type of education which the child is to receive should correspond with the wishes of the parents, the parents should be able to direct monies for school purposes to the school of their choice. The state should make provision for

the parents to direct their taxes to the school of their choice and thereby assist the parents in fulfilling their natural and legal obligations in regard to their children.

.
We hold that education is for the happiness of the individual and for good citizenship in this world, but even more important, it is for the service of Almighty God in this life and for happiness with God in the next . . .
The right and duty of the ecclesiastical authorities to help in the moulding of this phase of the work of education is a necessary corollary of the basic proposition that the teaching and influence of religion is an essential part of education.

.
Many of our citizens seem to think that mechanical uniformity, turning out children of the same make and mould in a "national school system" would serve our needs best. The effort to give it effect excludes from the school the main prop and cement of social life, namely religion. If all were of one religion the experiment could be made with possible safety, but we are unfortunately divided. In a country or province divided in religion, separate schools are the only kind of schools you can have if you are to teach religion effectively.

.
It is therefore recommended that the separate schools as an integral portion of the Provincial educational system training children to be efficient citizens, be provided with the finances necessary to carry on a full programme of modern education . . . according to the standards of the time.

.
For these reasons we urge recommendations from the Commission that the legislative facilities for establishing larger units of school administration for public schools be extended to the separate school portion of the Provincial school system; and that, due to the scattered nature of rural Separate School distribution, the Separate Schools permitted to establish such unions be not restricted to location "in the same or in adjoining municipalities", as in the present Section 31, Separate Schools Act.

.
Accordingly, it is recommended that an amendment be made to section 56 of the Separate Schools Act to permit a Roman Catholic to remain a separate school supporter when the school, of which he was legally a supporter by the provisions of the above section 56, is closed, under a Union Separate School Board, the pupils being provided with transportation to another school or other schools.

Brief 146 also recommended as follows:

1. That this Royal Commission recommend to the Government of Ontario that legislation be enacted whereby separate school Boards be authorized to provide a full elementary, secondary and high school education for all Catholic pupils under the charge of such Separate School Boards from the age of 5 up to the age of 21 years, as originally granted in pre-Confederation Statutes.
2. That the Royal Commission recommend that legislation be enacted whereby a just and proportionate share of educational grants for secondary and high school purposes be allotted to Separate School Boards, in order that the said school boards may carry out a full program of education for children entrusted to them.
3. That in any system of larger high school districts, provision be made in the statutes for the establishment of secondary education under the management of appropriate High School Boards, and for the conveyance of pupils residing in the district.

4. That where facilities are provided for high school education of Catholic pupils, that Catholics be exempt from public high school rates.

Brief 146 further recommended:

PENDING SUCH REMEDIAL LEGISLATION, we earnestly and urgently recommend for immediate attention:

1. That this Royal Commission uphold our present status, as far as Grades IX and X and Continuation Classes are concerned, and that it advise the Government of Ontario that the whole of the present Continuation Schools Act, as it stood prior to 1946, together with Regulations concerning Continuation Schools, and Section 73 of the Separate Schools Act, be retained.
2. That, as long as separate school supporters are bound to pay taxes for public high schools under boards of education, legislation should be enacted giving them the right to elect members to such boards, the representation being determined by the proportion of separate school supporters in the school district, or districts, concerned.
3. That, in the event of the establishment of intermediate schools to end of Grade X, or similar advantageous grading under composite high schools being introduced into the provincial system of common schools, legislation be enacted to protect the autonomy and authority of separate school boards over all classes in Separate Schools affected by this type of grading, and that provisions be made in such statutes whereby separate school boards will receive their just and proportionate share of all legislative grants made for the support of such grades and classes.

On the question of finality, it was stated in Brief 146:

It seems incredible to us that anyone would seriously claim finality for an administrative Statute, framed to meet social conditions as they were in 1863 . . . In the nature of the case, no Legislative Act, however perfect, could be a final settlement of such a complicated thing as school management and financing. Everyone knows that the bulk of modern legislation dealing with all forms of administration is subject to frequent amendment . . . The best that can be hoped for is legislation based on principles which would remain long accepted, and, as a matter of fact, we do adhere to the principles of the Acts of 1863 and 1867. We only ask for proper legislation to adapt their terms to the changed conditions under which we now live.

With reference to legislative grants, Brief 146 stated:

Grant plans should assure that all children should be treated alike and the money apportioned according to need. The system of assessments should be made uniform over the province by means of an equalization board. The Legislative Grant should be based partly on attendance, teachers employed and need for poor communities. Provincial aid should vary inversely according to the equalized assessment and directly as the school rate increases. It is considered that this problem should be faced boldly and constructively and in accordance with modern research in the problem of state aid for schools.

13. In Brief 113, the Inter-Church Committee on Protestant-Roman Catholic Relations expressed the views of a very considerable section of our population. The committee was representative of the following denominations: The Canadian Baptist Federation; the Churches of Christ (Disciples); The Church of England in Canada; the Evangelical Church; the Presbyterian Church in Canada; the Salvation Army; and the United

Church of Canada. As will be seen from excerpts given below, these Protestant groups staunchly support the public school system, and only with certain reservations do they accept separate schools as part of our general educational system. They also reserve the right to reconsider their position if the “final settlement” of 1867 is not observed. It will be appreciated that while these groups are resolute in their convictions they realistically recognize the existing situation, which involves rights and privileges arising from the pact of Confederation. They are prepared to agree to so much, but will concede no more. They regard adversely the extensions and expansions of the rights and privileges of the “Confederation Settlement” which have been made since 1867; and they might conceivably support, in certain circumstances, a movement advocating the repeal of all legislation permitting the establishment and maintenance of separate schools. Brief 113 reads, in part, as follows:

The rights and privileges which the Roman Catholics had by law were all included in the Act of 1863 supplemented by the Common School Act of 1859.

We take the position that all rights and privileges contained in these Acts shall be continued to the Roman Catholics, but all additional concessions, which they have obtained since Confederation, shall be cancelled, as this was a permanent and final settlement. Furthermore we request that the responsibilities and duties of voters, school boards, and teachers in Roman Catholic Schools, as stated in the Act of 1863 be continued; where they have been weakened they shall be restored to their original strength, and where they have been entirely repealed they shall again be placed on the statute book. We do not take the narrow ground that no changes should be made where the progress of events has produced altered conditions; we believe that while details may be adjusted, the general principles underlying, and the spirit of, the Act of 1863 shall be continued unchanged.

While we are prepared to accept the Confederation settlement as far as the educational rights of Roman Catholics are concerned we feel that it is necessary to draw to your attention that these rights were granted on condition that other terms of the Confederation pact should be accepted by the minority; if groups arise which demand the repeal of these alternative terms, we claim the right to reconsider our position.

Brief 113 also contains certain recommendations:

- A. That the teaching of Grades nine and ten in Public or Separate Schools in villages, towns, or cities in which there is a High School or Collegiate Institute shall be prohibited.
- B. That the ninth and tenth grades of a private High School shall not be considered to be a Public or Separate School, and as part of a private school shall not share in any legislative grants.
-
- A. That the whole Continuation Schools Act, Regulations of the Continuation Schools, and Section 73 of the Separate Schools Act be repealed.
- B. That the two Continuation Schools at Eganville and the two at Westport be united to form two High Schools.
- C. That the present Continuation Schools should all be converted into High Schools and come under the High Schools Act and Regulations.
- D. That gradually the smaller and least efficient Continuation Schools be closed and transportation supplied to convenient, well equipped High Schools.

E. That no privileges be given to Denominational Secondary Schools similar to those given to Separate Schools.

It further recommends the repeal of Section 21 of the present *Separate Schools Act*:

- A. That the whole of Section 21 of the "Separate Schools Act" (1937), R.S.O. Chapter 362, be at once repealed because it is contrary to the letter and spirit of the permanent settlement of the Separate School Question with the Roman Catholics in the British North America Act, and also because it is fatal to our National System of Schools in nine tenths of the Province of Ontario.
- B. That all Roman Catholic Separate Schools formed under this section shall be converted into Public Schools.

The same brief recommends the establishment of "an educational advisory council":

- A. That an Advisory Council, composed of the President of the University of Toronto; the Chief Justice of Ontario; the Chief Director of Education; representatives of the teachers of elementary and High Schools, trustees, and of the Protestant and Roman Catholic Churches, shall consider every piece of legislation pertaining to education or Departmental Regulation, and that their advice to the Minister of Education must be received and made public before such bills are introduced into the House, or before Departmental Regulations become effective.

14. An examination and comparison of the suggestions and recommendations in the various briefs reveal diametrically opposed views on fundamental points. Indeed, it has appeared to many that the antipodal positions assumed make reconciliation impossible. It was with a full appreciation of these facts that we, as a Commission, pursued our study of the problem: all briefs and memoranda relating to Roman Catholic separate schools were examined with care; the history of the question, particularly in its legal aspects, was exhaustively surveyed; legal advice and opinion were secured where the wording of sections of the statutes appeared to be ambiguous; and in meetings of committees and in private sessions of the Commission possible solutions of both general and specific questions were fully discussed and evaluated.

STATUS OF ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOLS

15. As has been noted earlier, the establishment and operation of Roman Catholic separate schools are rights based on statutory authority dating back to 1841. These rights were consolidated in *An Act to Restore to Roman Catholics in Upper Canada Certain Rights in Respect to Separate Schools*,¹ and, for such denominational schools, were confirmed in Section 93, sub-section 1, of the *British North America Act* of 1867:

In and for each Province, the Legislature may exclusively make laws in relation to Education, subject and according to the following provisions:

- (1) Nothing in any such Law shall prejudicially affect any Right or Privilege with respect to Denominational Schools which any Class of Persons have by Law in the Province at the Union.

¹26 Vict., Ch. 5, S.P.C., 1863.

At various times since 1867, appeals to the Privy Council on specific points have resulted in judicial decisions on the meaning of sections of the Acts. On the provincial side during the same period, as we have outlined, legislation has been enacted which has granted what, it has been argued, are extensions of the original rights or privileges. Such provincial legislation enacted since 1867 may, however, be repealed at any time by the Legislature without contravening the pact of Confederation; the relevant extensions may in this sense be considered as privileges rather than as rights.

16. To speak of a school system which is separated or divided through the introduction of "separate" schools as a "common" school system appears to be a contradiction in terms. But our predecessors did not consider it anomalous to refer to "separate" schools as "common" schools, and their point of view was substantiated by the judgment of the Privy Council in the *Tiny Case*, discussed in some detail below.

17. Whether, originally, statutory provision for the establishment and operation of separate schools should have been made is a different question. Ryerson, for example, had definite views on this subject. In a letter to the Roman Catholic Bishop of Toronto in 1852, he wrote:

I always thought the introduction of any provision for Separate Schools in a Popular System of Common Education, like that of Upper Canada, was to be regretted and inexpedient; but finding such a provision in existence, and that parties concerned attached great importance to it, I have advocated its continuance,—leaving Separate Schools to die out, not by force of legislative enactment, but under the influence of increasingly enlightened and enlarged views of Christian relations, rights and duties between different classes of the community . . . I believe the legal provision for Separate Schools has been, and is seriously injurious, rather than beneficial, to the Roman Catholic portion of the community . . .¹

Today, if we have assessed aright the submissions made to us and other available information, public school supporters as a group, including a number of Roman Catholic laymen, strongly uphold the principle of non-sectarian public schools for all the children of all the people, and hence regard with disfavour the principle of a system of publicly supported denominational schools. Moreover, they feel that a serious error of judgment was committed when provisions for the establishment of separate schools were first decreed. In fact, some groups would favour repeal, even at this late date, of all enabling legislation in regard to these schools. Another large group recognizes the statutory rights in regard to Roman Catholic separate schools, but stoutly maintains that the settlement of 1867 was concurred in by all parties and, therefore, should be considered final, and that provincial enactments since 1867 which have extended the rights mutually accepted at the time of Confederation should be repealed.

18. Whatever may have been our views as individual members of the Commission when we entered upon our task, as a result of our careful

¹J. G. Hodgins, *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada*, Vol. X, 1851-52, Toronto: King's Printer, 1903, p. 183.

and objective study of the problem of separate schools the majority would, if the Commission were in the happy position of recommending the organization of an educational system for Ontario unfettered by the past, vigorously oppose permissive authority for the establishment of denominational schools of any description as a part of the system. However, after a careful and comprehensive analysis of the situation and with full recognition of the diverse and inflexible opinions held, we are convinced that the future status of Roman Catholic separate schools should be primarily based upon the legal position at the time of Confederation, and that provincial enactments relating to Roman Catholic separate schools necessitated by changing educational conditions should be governed by the basic principles of legislation existing at the time of Confederation. We therefore recommend

- (a) *that elementary schools under the jurisdiction of the Minister of Education continue to be deemed to include Roman Catholic separate schools as a special form thereof;*
- (b) *that, subject to the qualifications hereinafter set forth, rights and privileges with respect to Roman Catholic separate schools consolidated in the Separate Schools Act of 1863 and subject to Section 93 (1) of the British North America Act of 1867 be continued.*

19. The various sections of the Common Schools Act of 1859 and the Separate Schools Act of 1863 were drafted at a time when economic and social conditions differed greatly from those of the present day. To meet changing needs associated with social and economic developments, statutory changes have frequently been made in *The Public Schools Act*. Not all, however, were made applicable to separate schools, and, indeed, many sections of the present *Separate Schools Act* are, at least in some respects, better suited to the conditions of an earlier era. In making a comprehensive revision of, or in drafting even minor amendments to, *The Separate Schools Act*, the prime difficulty has always been to provide adequately for new educational conditions without transgressing the limitations imposed by the fundamental principles underlying the Acts at the time of Confederation. We have been unable to locate any precise statement of the principles underlying the rights and privileges assured to supporters of Roman Catholic separate schools. We consider it desirable, however, that they be extracted. In our opinion, the following principles were implicit in the legislation relating to Roman Catholic separate schools at the time of Confederation:

- (1) A class of persons, being Roman Catholics and satisfying certain definite statutory requirements, were to have the right to establish a denominational school under certain specific conditions, and to operate it as a special form of common (elementary) school.
- (2) The special form of elementary school so established was to be administered by trustees, elected by the persons exercising the right to

establish it, who in respect to Roman Catholic separate schools were to have the same powers, perform the same duties, and be subject to the same penalties as trustees of common schools in respect to common schools.

- (3) Such an elementary school, so established and administered, was to be entitled to support from those Roman Catholics residing within three miles in a direct line of the site of the school-house who had elected to be its supporters, and was also to be entitled to share in the legislative grant apportioned for common school purposes.
- (4) Supporters of such a Roman Catholic separate school, subject to certain conditions and specific limitations, were to be exempted from the payment of rates for the support of common schools.
- (5) No similar rights were to be held by Roman Catholic separate school supporters with respect to grammar or other types of secondary schools.

To us, these are fundamental principles. In our opinion all enactments and regulations relating to Roman Catholic separate schools in this province should be governed by, and be amended to accord with, them. It is on the basis of an acceptance of these fundamental principles that we proceed with our recommendations.

ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOLS IN RELATION TO THE NEW STAGES OF EDUCATION

20. In our discussion of the reorganization of the educational system, we recommended the arrangement of the educational programme in three stages corresponding to the stages of child development: elementary education; secondary education; and further education. The general pattern for the reorganized system, as previously explained, is to be a 6-4-3 plan. As a sequel to such reorganization, there arises the question of the status of Roman Catholic separate schools in relation to the proposed stages.

21. As we have noted, Roman Catholic separate schools, from the legal point of view, are deemed to be a special form of "common" or elementary school. The Ontario Catholic Education Council, however, does not accept this limited status and, in Brief 146, recommends, in part, that:

. . . separate school Boards be authorized to provide a full elementary, secondary and high school education for all Catholic pupils under the charge of such Separate School Boards from the age of 5 up to the age of 21 years, as originally granted in pre-Confederation Statutes.

Thus, the claim is advanced that education in Roman Catholic separate schools should extend throughout all stages of the educational system, even including two years beyond what we had contemplated as the upper limit of the age-range for pre-university education. It is further claimed that this is a right granted by statute prior to Confederation. With these claims we are compelled by the available evidence to disagree.

22. From its beginning in 1807 until the establishment of what are known as "Roman Catholic" continuation schools at Eganville and Westport, post-elementary education in this province developed, without exception, in conformity with the principle of providing secondary education in only provincially-supported public secondary schools. The statutory authorization under which these two "Roman Catholic"¹ schools operate and offer courses in grades IX to XIII inclusive was not provided until the Act of 1908.² As was stated in the previous chapter, power to establish continuation *classes* was first granted to Roman Catholic separate school boards in 1899. Originally, such classes were to be established only in municipalities or sections in which there was no high school, and were to provide instruction in secondary school subjects at least as far as the second form of the high school to students who would not otherwise be able to secure such advanced instruction. Continuation classes were divided, in 1908, into continuation schools and fifth classes, both of which might be under the jurisdiction of elementary school boards and offer secondary school courses. This represented an extension of the elementary school programme into the secondary field, which resulted in an overlapping of the elementary and secondary school programmes not originally contemplated.

23. The purpose of elementary schools (or "Common" schools as they were called in the Act of 1816), in the words of His Excellency Francis Gore, Esquire, Lieutenant-Governor of Upper Canada, was

. . . provision for the establishment of schools in each township, which shall afford the first principles to the children of the inhabitants, and prepare such of them as may require further instruction to receive it in the District Schools . . .³

As the "District Schools" referred to were what we now term secondary schools (the Act establishing "District" schools was passed in 1807), it is clear that common schools were established to provide elementary school education for all children and to form a stage leading directly to what we now call secondary school education.

24. This fact is also demonstrated in a circular to the boards of grammar school trustees in 1865, in which Ryerson stated:

The Council [of Public Instruction] . . . remarked: . . . "it is clear that the object and function of Grammar Schools, is not to teach the Elementary branches of English, but to teach the Higher branches alone, and especially to teach the subjects necessary for matriculation into the University" . . .

But, from the inefficiency of the Common Schools at that time [1855] the Grammar Schools were still suffered to do Common School work; and the evil to the Grammar Schools has increased rather than diminished. In the mean time the Common Schools have so improved in character and efficiency as to be decidedly in advance of most of the Grammar Schools in teaching all the subjects

¹Listed as "R.C." schools in the *Report of the Minister of Education*, 1948, pp. 223 and 225.

²8 Edw. VII, Ch. 68, S.O.

³J. G. Hodgins, *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada*, Vol. I, 1790-1830, Toronto: Warwick Bros. & Rutter, 1894, p. 94.

of an ordinary English education; and to allow the Grammar Schools still to do Common School work is not only at variance with the object of the Grammar School Fund, but is an infringement on the province of Common Schools . . . and the time has now come when the Common Schools should be protected in the work which they are nobly doing, and the Grammar Schools should be made to do the work, and that alone, which is prescribed for them by law . . . This is essential to the creation and maintenance of good Grammar Schools, and to the due advancement of sound classical education, as well as for the due protection and encouragement of Common Schools and of sound Common School education.¹

There is a distinction made here between the work to be done by grammar (secondary) and by common (elementary) schools, and an equally definite line between grammar school (secondary) education and common school (elementary) education. The overlapping, in practice, between the two types of education existed, according to Ryerson, because of the difficulty in those early days of providing elementary education for all. In his circular² on the Grammar School Improvement Law of 1865, which was sent to the mayors of towns and the reeves of incorporated villages in Upper Canada, Ryerson stated:

. . . it is the object of the new Act, and of the recent Regulations, to make the Grammar Schools what they ought to be, and what the progress and institutions of the Country demand, videlicet: Intermediate Schools between the Colleges and the Common Schools, doing work of the greatest importance, which cannot be done by either the Colleges, or Common Schools; imparting to the youth the higher branches of an English education; preparing Students for the University; and giving the necessary preliminary education to those who wish to become Surveyors and matriculate in the Department of Civil Engineering in the University . . . Thus your Grammar School may be made truly and practically the High School of your Municipality . . .

This is an official statement concerning the different stages and their purposes in the educational system of the period immediately prior to Confederation. Overlapping of programmes was a result of conditions peculiar to pioneer settlements and was countenanced only for this reason.

25. In our opinion, Roman Catholic separate schools did not at the time of Confederation have any right, as was claimed in Brief 146, to provide "secondary and high school education"; Roman Catholic separate schools were a special form of common schools and were, consequently, elementary schools; and, in fact, no "grammar" school legislation or early recorded discussion of it even hints at separate schools having any jurisdiction in the secondary school field.

26. Roman Catholic separate schools did not have the right at Confederation to provide secondary and high school education; in fact, such schools were positively regarded as only a special form of common schools.

¹J. G. Hodgins, *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada*, Vol. XVIII, 1863-1865, pp. 252-253.

²J. G. Hodgins, *Historical and Other Papers and Documents*, Vol. IV, 1858-1876, (1911), pp. 38-39.

In the *Tiny School Case*,¹ it was contended by the Roman Catholic separate school trustees that Roman Catholics should be exempted from the payment of all rates for the support of secondary schools not conducted by themselves. In short, it was claimed that secondary school education in schools operated by Roman Catholic separate school boards should be entitled to support from taxation, including legislative grants. However, the judgment of the Privy Council stated that separate schools were "only a special form of common school" and that the Council of Public Instruction in 1863 (now the Department of Education) could, in the case of both public and separate schools, determine the courses of study to be pursued and the extent of the education to be imparted. Thus was established the unquestionable right of the Legislature of Ontario by statute or by authorized regulations to regulate the right of trustees of Roman Catholic separate schools to establish and conduct courses of study and "grades of education" such as are conducted in fifth classes, continuation classes and schools, and high schools and collegiate institutes. The *Tiny* decision also established that in law the Department of Education is clothed with full power, as was its predecessor, the Council of Public Instruction, to determine the course of study for each grade of the elementary and secondary schools and the point or grade to which elementary schools shall extend.

27. For psychological and educational reasons, changes in the organization of our educational system are necessary, and we have recommended that they be made by the Minister. In so doing, he would be exercising recognized statutory authority. In the proposed reorganized system, separate school boards would continue to operate elementary schools only.

28. We therefore recommend

that Roman Catholic separate schools be authorized by the Legislature to provide the educational programme only as proposed for elementary schools in the reorganized educational system, including nursery schools and kindergartens.

THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMME IN ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOLS IN THE PROPOSED REORGANIZATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

29. The general aims of education which we have enunciated and the specific aims regarding the divisions and subjects of the elementary school stage will, of course, apply to Roman Catholic separate and public schools alike. Advocates of Roman Catholic separate schools, however, have a conception of the status of religious training in schools which influences fundamentally the nature of the programme to be offered. The following quotations from Brief 146, submitted by the Ontario Catholic Education Council, express this point of view:

¹*Tiny Separate School Trustees vs. The King*, 1928, 97 *Law Journal*, Privy Council, p. 83.

Catholics desire schools which are integrally Catholic because of their deep conviction that no other can give their children the religious formation of mind and character which they esteem as the most valuable and important element in their lives.

In rejecting the claim that this end can be attained in public schools, it was further stated:

Our position on the matter is that the religious training to be imparted to Catholic students must be according to our beliefs . . . We have always held, and will continue to hold, that such instruction [in public schools] falls short of an ideal education, since it lacks what, in our view, are essential factors in a complete Christian education. We hold . . . that the school which is at liberty to use the religious motive in educational processes is at a pedagogical advantage with regard to the formation of moral character, the true basis of worthy citizenship.

The conclusion set out in this brief is:

A legally recognized school, therefore, in which our children may receive, unhampered, a full course in religious and moral training, along with the secular instruction as required by law, is a logical consequence of our fundamental understanding of the meaning of Christian education.

This position is supported by the Bishops of the Roman Catholic dioceses of Ontario in Brief 196, wherein it is stated:

. . . we are bound to declare unambiguously that Catholics can never accept undenominational religious teaching as satisfying their own consciences. As is recognized in the British North America Act, separate educational provisions must be made for Protestants and Catholics in Ontario as in Quebec.

For advocates of Roman Catholic separate schools, therefore, a cardinal aim of the educational programme is the inculcation of denominational religious beliefs—the teaching of the Roman Catholic faith.

30. It is paradoxical that, although Roman Catholic separate schools have long been recognized as denominational schools, there is no specific authority in Act or regulation for religious instruction to be imparted in them. We feel that a course of study in religious instruction for Roman Catholic separate schools should be drafted and officially recognized by the Department of Education, together with the necessary regulations as to allotment of time and other related matters. Accordingly we recommend *that statutory provision be made for instruction in religious education in Roman Catholic separate schools, and that the necessary regulations relating thereto, including the time to be allotted therefor, be made by the Minister of Education under The Department of Education Act.*

31. With the introduction of a programme of religious education into the public schools of the province and with denominational religious teaching by authorized persons of the various denominations, the oft-repeated, but never valid, criticism of the public schools as “Godless” must now be finally abandoned. Indeed, it might well be considered that the need for the establishment of separate schools on a religious basis no longer exists.

It would appear to be a reasonable conclusion that with the opportunity to use school time for denominational religious instruction Roman Catholic children of the province could receive that training within the public schools.

32. In discussing the educational programme in Roman Catholic separate schools, the Ontario Catholic Educational Council, in Brief 146, under the heading "Inability to Carry on a Full Programme of Education", stated: "It must be confessed that Ontario separate schools have not been able to keep pace in this respect with their associated public schools. We submit that our inability to do so has been due to poverty." There is a special reference in the brief to the inability of Roman Catholic separate schools to provide auxiliary classes, kindergartens, kindergarten-primary classes, and special subjects such as industrial arts and crafts, home economics, art, music, and physical culture; and the recommendation is made "that . . . separate schools . . . be provided with the finances necessary to carry on a full programme of modern education in the sense just previously outlined according to the standards of the time." Official records substantiate the claim that Roman Catholic separate schools do not provide "a full programme of modern education" to the same extent as is done in public schools. As indicated by high school entrance examination results, however, their achievement in the basic subjects, except for those schools in which French is a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister of Education, has been approximately equivalent to that of public schools. Apparently, separate schools are able to provide an effective programme in the basic subjects of the elementary school curriculum.

33. In spite of a generally higher local tax rate for Roman Catholic separate schools, the claim that "poverty" is an impediment to the improvement of the programme in such schools is difficult to accept or comprehend in view of the large and expanding programme pursued by Roman Catholic authorities and citizens in establishing and enlarging schools for secondary education. These can only be ranked as private schools, and must be largely financed by the same ratepayers who have elected to support Roman Catholic separate elementary schools. It is also abundantly evident that Roman Catholic separate school authorities are experiencing their greatest financial difficulties in those municipalities where they are conducting classes at the secondary school level.

34. Under our proposed reorganized educational system, Roman Catholic separate schools should be able without financial difficulty to provide the full modern programme for the six grades of elementary school education which we recommend. On the other hand, it will be more expensive, and in many areas it may be somewhat of a financial burden, to support nursery schools and kindergartens. Nevertheless, to provide a full programme for children in the regular elementary school stage, and even to provide a complete system of kindergartens—a development which we favour—should

not be beyond the financial ability of separate school supporters. It may involve some financial sacrifice on the part of these supporters, particularly in view of increasing costs, but this may well be the price that must be paid by those who elect the privilege of having separate denominational elementary schools. The present financial difficulties arise, in our opinion, mainly because Roman Catholic separate school authorities are attempting to provide educational facilities in grades higher than grade VIII.

35. With but few exceptions, in all matters relating to the curriculum and courses of study, organization of divisions within the elementary school, pupil progress and evaluation, and similar topics, our general recommendations on elementary education will apply to Roman Catholic separate schools. Similarly, the recommendations, in Chapter VI of our Report, with respect to textbooks are applicable to both public and separate schools. Since specific reference was not there made to the matter, however, at this juncture we recommend

that a list of textbooks, other than those for religious education, for use in Roman Catholic separate schools be prepared and approved by the Minister of Education.

THE TEACHING STAFF OF ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOLS

36. In our opinion, prospective teachers for elementary schools should hold the same academic qualifications and be trained and certificated in the same manner whether they propose to teach in public schools or in Roman Catholic separate schools; and all elementary school teachers, public and separate, should be subject to the same duties and penalties. Accordingly, we recommend

- (a) *that prospective teachers for Roman Catholic separate schools be required to meet the same admission requirements and to be trained and certificated in the same manner as prospective teachers for public elementary schools;*
- (b) *that teachers employed in Roman Catholic separate schools be subject to the same obligations and penalties as teachers employed in public elementary schools.*

37. In relation to teachers' contracts, salaries, and superannuation, we find it necessary to discuss separately provisions for two groups of Roman Catholic separate school teachers. Approximately one-half of the teachers in Roman Catholic separate schools at the present time are members of one or other of the several Roman Catholic religious communities or orders, and are frequently referred to as "religious" teachers. The remainder are not members of communities or orders and are, consequently, generally referred to as "lay" teachers. Teachers of the first group, by virtue of their membership in a community or order, are under vows of poverty and are forbidden to hold any personal property. Apparently as a consequence, in a large number of cases they have not signed individual contracts with

the boards of trustees of the schools in which they teach, although such a written agreement “. . . signed by the parties thereto, and sealed with the corporate seal of the board . . .” is required under Section 47 of the present *Separate Schools Act*. As we found upon enquiry, in many cases there is a written contract to which the board and officials of the order or community supplying the teachers are signatories. In other cases, the agreement between the board of trustees and officials of the community is oral, or the written agreement was made so many years ago that no copy can now be produced. Payment of salary is frequently made by the board of trustees to the order or community rather than to the individual teacher, who may be, but not often is, mentioned by name in the agreement.¹ We found, much to our surprise, that, contrary to the provisions of the Acts and regulations, many teachers and boards—public, separate, and high school—never execute a written agreement governing teaching services. It seems to us imperative, as we state in a later chapter,² that, for the protection of both parties, a written memorandum of employment be executed. With specific reference to teachers of Roman Catholic separate schools, we recommend

that a written offer and acceptance of employment, signed by the parties thereto and sealed with the corporate seal of the board, be executed between the board of trustees of a Roman Catholic separate school and each teacher appointed on a probationary or continuing basis to the permanent staff of the contracting board, before the said teacher enters upon his duties.

38. By practice long established and followed by separate school authorities, teachers who are members of a religious order or community have been, and are, generally paid lower salaries than those paid to the lay teachers in Roman Catholic separate schools. There are exceptions—few in number and made for no particular reason that we could determine, unless it be to secure larger legislative grants—where religious teachers are paid as much as, or more than, lay teachers in the same school. Generally speaking, however, with individuals under vows of poverty and the order presumably not operating for profit, any “salaries” involved have been, and are, purely nominal, representing no more than the cost per capita of maintaining the teachers concerned. We recommend

that, for legislative grant purposes, for each teacher in a Roman Catholic separate school who is a member of a religious order or community the amount of salary to be included by the board thereof as part of the

¹It may be noted that, by ruling of the Department of National Revenue, as advised to this Commission in a letter from the Minister of National Revenue, dated May 23, 1947, when an agreement is made by a board with an order or community, the teacher concerned is not subject to income tax, being deemed to have received no remuneration for his services. If the contract is with an individual teacher, whether or not the board pays the salary to the order or community, the teacher concerned is subject to tax on the income received by him or on his behalf.

²See Chapter XXIII.

approved cost of operating be a specified nominal sum, fixed on a provincial basis by the Minister of Education, representing the cost of maintenance of such teacher to the religious order or community, or the annual salary paid to such teacher by the said board, whichever is the lesser.

Roman Catholic separate school boards may, of course, pay to a teacher who belongs to a religious order or community any amount in salary they may deem advisable, but, where it is higher than the nominal sum fixed for legislative grant purposes, any additional amount so paid should be defrayed from sums provided solely by the supporters of the separate school. Since the total amount of salary of a "religious" teacher is usually paid, directly or indirectly, to the religious order or community, and since legislative grants come from funds provided by Protestants as well as Roman Catholics, if an amount greater than the cost of maintenance is included for legislative grant purposes, this would, in effect, be subsidizing a religious order or community from public funds. Any such payment would normally benefit the religious order or community but could not benefit the teacher, who is under vows of poverty.

39. For teachers employed in Roman Catholic separate schools who are not members of a religious order or community, we believe that our general recommendations on salaries for elementary school teachers should apply. Accordingly, we recommend

that salaries of teachers in Roman Catholic separate schools who are not members of a religious order or community be determined on the same salary-schedule basis and be included for legislative grant purposes under the same regulations as for teachers in public elementary schools.¹

40. Our proposals with respect to *The Teachers' Superannuation Act* should apply to teachers of all schools under the jurisdiction of the Department of Education. We therefore recommend

that all teachers employed in Roman Catholic separate elementary schools be contributors to the Teachers' Superannuation Fund and be subject to the regulations of the Fund.

41. In the case of teachers of Roman Catholic separate schools who are members of a religious community or order, some special arrangements will have to be made, in the interests of the stability of the Fund, regarding the amount of salary upon which contributions shall be paid and benefits calculated. We recommend

that in the case of teachers employed in Roman Catholic separate schools who are members of a religious order or community:

- (i) *the minimum annual salary for the calculation of contributions to the Teachers' Superannuation Fund be fixed at a specified sum;*
- (ii) *in calculating the average salary upon which benefits are to be*

¹See Chapter XXIII.

based, either the same fixed sum or the amount of salary upon which contributions were actually paid in any given year, whichever is the greater, be used.

ADMINISTRATION OF ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOLS

42. Since an earlier recommendation in this chapter was "that elementary schools under the jurisdiction of the Minister of Education continue to be deemed to include Roman Catholic separate schools as a special form thereof", it follows that the central authority for both public and Roman Catholic separate schools must be the same, subject only in the case of the latter to the power of the Parliament of Canada to pass remedial measures as provided by Section 93 of the *British North America Act*. Thus, Roman Catholic separate schools will continue to be subject to enactments of the Legislature of our province and to regulations of the Minister of Education. Owing, however, to the conflict of opinion with respect to these schools and to the political pressure exerted by powerful groups who are either proponents or opponents of separate schools, there would appear to be a vital need for the existence of an appointed committee to review dispassionately matters of policy relating to Roman Catholic separate schools and to consider objectively and resolve amicably differences of opinion on specific problems. Our idea is that such a committee would be constituted as a sub-committee of the Central Advisory Council recommended elsewhere.¹ We therefore recommend

- (a) *that a committee of the Central Advisory Council, including in its membership representatives of Roman Catholic separate school supporters, be appointed by the Minister of Education;*
- (b) *that, for investigation and report, the Minister refer to this committee, through the Central Advisory Council, matters of policy and specific problems relating to Roman Catholic separate schools;*
- (c) *that, whether acted upon or not, reports of the committee be tabled in the Legislative Assembly at the first session held subsequent to their submission to the Minister.*

43. In approaching the details of administration of separate schools, one preliminary ambiguity must be cleared up. The use of the words "section" and "unit" is apt to be confusing and misleading when applied to the administrative areas for separate schools, since these terms cannot have the same meaning they possess when used with reference to public schools. For public school purposes, "section" has always meant an area of territory with a clear demarcation of its boundaries, but, for separate school purposes, this cannot be the meaning. An early realization of this peculiarity may be inferred from a statement of Ryerson in 1862 that separate school

¹See Chapter XIV.

supporters "virtually formed their own Section",¹ a remark which equally well describes the situation today.

44. The essential qualifications of a Roman Catholic separate school supporter are three in number: he must be a Roman Catholic; he must reside within three miles in a direct line of the site of the Roman Catholic separate school; and he must have elected to support the Roman Catholic separate school. Under these conditions, an administrative unit obviously cannot be defined in terms of land area, but only in terms of persons qualified as supporters. Thus, although the term "Roman Catholic separate school section" may be used to describe that part of the population separated from the remainder for a particular educational purpose, it cannot have the same meaning as in the term "public school section", which refers to an area of land. In our opinion there is, therefore, under existing legislation and in the commonly accepted sense of the term, no unit of administration such as a school "section" for Roman Catholic separate school purposes. For a Roman Catholic separate school, since there is no bounded land area as the unit of administration, there is but a board of trustees, a group of supporters, and the institution to be operated as a Roman Catholic separate school; and each of these is essential to the continuance of the total organization.

Formation of a Roman Catholic Separate School Corporation

45. Under existing statutory provisions, a Roman Catholic separate school corporation can be formed forthwith by a specified number of persons having certain qualifications; and a school can be established and operated without the Minister of Education or his officials exercising any real control over the process or even being consulted. Indeed, such was the case at the time of Confederation. Nor need there be consultation with the supporters or officials of any local public school affected. All that is required is notification, directly or indirectly, that the action has been taken and a separate school established. A Roman Catholic separate school so established and operated, if the statutory procedures have been followed, is eligible for, and must be allotted, a share of the general legislative grant voted by the Legislative Assembly for the support of elementary education. This right places almost unfettered power in the hands of small groups of Roman Catholics. The Minister of Education is compelled to recognize the action taken and to give financial support from public moneys to the school so organized. What is also vastly important is that the establishment of the new school may affect prejudicially the welfare of the public school formerly supported in part by the members of the separating group.

¹"The Roman Catholic Separate School Acts of 1855 and 1863 Compared", Appendix G, *Annual Report of the Normal, Model, Grammar and Common Schools in Upper Canada*, 1862, p. 163.

46. The provisions of the existing law permit the organization of a separate school corporation to be effected speedily. Evidence submitted to us reveals that, in some instances at least, action has been initiated by a few disgruntled individuals, or by a zealous priest, without fully considering the need, or the possible adverse effects upon the local public school or schools, or the added burden assumed by the proposed separate school supporters and the possible disadvantages to their children. In too many cases the organization of a separate school has resulted in two weak inefficient schools replacing one strong public school, with a consequent partial use of the public school plant and equipment and a duplication of facilities. In many cases, however, more particularly in larger urban centres, no marked ill effects of this nature have resulted. Except for the inevitable consequences of any separation, there has been little or no dissatisfaction where, before action was taken, there was consultation with the educational authorities of the local public schools and with officials of the Minister of Education, and where joint action was planned and precipitate action was avoided.

47. Originally, it may have been essential, in cases of "insult and oppression", to have provisions which would permit urgent action on the part of those prejudicially affected; it may even have been inadvisable to require consultation and consideration by all parties concerned. In our opinion, however, the need for such extraordinary provisions has long since ceased to exist. In the interests of all affected parties, and particularly in the interests of the children of both public and separate school supporters, we believe that provisions conducive to ill-advised, precipitate, and uncontrolled action on the part of any group should be amended. The right to form a separate school corporation must not be abrogated; but the procedure to be followed in exercising this right should be subject to regulation. We therefore recommend

- (a) *that provision be made in the statutes to require that when a Roman Catholic separate school corporation is constituted and the establishment of a separate school is proposed there be consultation and consideration by all parties affected, including officials of the Minister of Education, with a full examination of, and report upon, the attendant circumstances by the Central Advisory Council;*
- (b) *that the Minister of Education be empowered to defer the payment of legislative grants to such corporation until after such consultation and consideration, and until after such report by the Central Advisory Council has been received.*

These provisions would require that such corporations be constituted and such schools be established in accordance with certain specified regulations; they would not abrogate fundamental rights or privileges of supporters of Roman Catholic separate schools. While freedom of action would be subjected to regulation, the right to take action would not be abolished.

Section 21 of The Separate Schools Act

48. Section 21 of the present *Separate Schools Act* provides for the formation of separate school corporations in unorganized townships and in any part of Ontario not surveyed into townships. This is a variant of the formation of separate school corporations within a public school section. As we have seen, no such specific right as that inherent in Section 21 was given to Roman Catholics prior to Confederation; the clause was introduced in 1899, applying to unsurveyed territory, and amended in 1902 to include unorganized townships. It permits the formation of a separate school corporation by ten heads of families, being Roman Catholics, without requiring residence within a public school section. As this is an enlargement of the fundamental rights and privileges granted at the time of Confederation, and is contrary to the principles which we have enumerated, we recommend

that Section 21 of the present Separate Schools Act be repealed, and the procedure of Sections 18, 19, and 20 of the said Act, subject to the recommended provision for consultation, consideration, and report by the Central Advisory Council on the proposed establishment of a Roman Catholic separate school, be followed in all cases in the constitution of Roman Catholic separate school corporations.

49. It was recommended in Brief 113 that all separate schools established to date under Section 21 of *The Separate Schools Act* "be converted into Public Schools by the Legislature". To accomplish this, the separate school corporations formed under this Section would presumably have to be dissolved; public school sections would have to be established; and public school corporations would have to be formed. But, as soon as this action had been taken, any five heads of families, being Roman Catholics, resident in any one of these newly constituted public school sections would have the right, under Sections 18 to 20 inclusive of *The Separate Schools Act*, to form a separate school corporation and establish a separate school. In view of the fact that public schools could have been legally established at any time in these areas, but were not, it is reasonable to conclude that the inhabitants would desire to re-establish their separate schools. If we have judged aright the purpose of this proposal in Brief 113, we fail to see what could be gained by the action recommended. We recommend

that all separate school corporations heretofore formed under the provisions of Section 21 of the present Separate Schools Act be deemed to have been legally constituted as if established under Sections 18, 19, and 20 of the said Act.

Union Separate School Boards.

50. At the time of Confederation, provisions were made for the formation of what we would now term "union boards". Under Section 5 of the *Separate Schools Act* of 1863, however, the trustees of separate schools

in cities and towns, "elected . . . in the several Wards of any city or town", were to form one body corporate. Permission was given, under Section 6 of the same Act, to form unions of "Separate School Sections". The Section reads:

6. It shall be lawful for the majority of the rate-paying supporters of the Separate School, in each Separate School Section, whether the Sections be in the same or adjoining Municipalities, at a Public Meeting duly called by the Separate School Trustees of each such section, to form such Sections into a Separate School Union Section, of which union of sections the Trustees shall give notice within fifteen days to the Clerk or Clerks of the Municipality or Municipalities, and to the Chief Superintendent of Education; and each such Separate School Union Section thus formed, shall be deemed one School Section for all Roman Catholic Separate School purposes, and shall every year thereafter be represented by three Trustees, to be elected as in Common School Sections:

2. And the said Trustees shall form a body corporate, under the title of "The Board of Trustees of the Roman Catholic United Separate Schools for the United Sections Nos. (as the case may be,) in the (as the case may be.)"

As no reference was made in the Act to the closing of schools or to the disposal of school buildings and other property after a union had been effected, although this was a required duty of the township council¹ in the case of a union of common school sections, the union would seem to have been for administrative purposes only. What was contemplated in the provision was the replacing, through voluntary action of the rate-paying supporters of each, of a number of separate school boards, each administering a single separate school, by one body corporate to administer the several schools. Thus, the provision might be regarded as permission to constitute a single separate school board to administer a number of separate schools in rural areas, paralleling the mandatory provision for cities and towns.

51. The provision of the present *Separate Schools Act*, Section 32, differs from that of the 1863 Act, apparently in an attempt to avoid the use of the inapplicable phrase "Separate School Section". It reads:

32.—(1) The majority of the supporters of each of the separate schools situate in two or more public school sections, whether in the same or in adjoining municipalities, at a public meeting duly called by the board of each separate school may form a union separate school of which union the trustees shall give notice within fifteen days to the clerk or clerks of the municipality or municipalities and to the Minister of Education, and every union separate school thus formed shall be deemed one school for all Roman Catholic separate school purposes, and shall every year thereafter be represented by three trustees to be elected by the supporters of the union separate school as provided by section 26.

(2) The trustees shall be a body corporate under the name of "The Board of Trustees of the Roman Catholic Union Separate School for the United Sections numbers in the ."

As of July 1, 1948, 24 union boards had been formed,² including the Toronto and Suburban Separate School Board. The formation of union

¹*Consolidated Common School Act of Upper Canada*, 1859, Sec. 44.

²*Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario*, 1948, p. 132.

boards for separate schools apparently coincided, in point of time, with the development of larger units for public school purposes and with provision by the province for "stimulation" grants to encourage the formation of larger units of administration. As far as we have been able to determine, none had been formed before 1939.

52. An analysis of the distribution of the Roman Catholic population in Ontario indicates that, owing to the concentration of this population in certain areas, there is no general need for union separate school boards throughout the province. Our study shows:

- (1) In most areas¹ in the province the Roman Catholic population forms a minority group.
- (2) In a substantial number of areas there are relatively few Roman Catholics.
- (3) In a few areas Roman Catholics form a majority group.
- (4) In the areas in which the Roman Catholic population is in the majority, the population almost invariably includes a substantial group of French racial origin.
- (5) Whereas the population of French racial origin is almost evenly divided between rural and urban, the Roman Catholic population not of French racial origin is predominantly urban.

On the basis of these findings and other evidence, we have concluded that there are so few separate school supporters and pupils in most rural areas of the province that the establishment of a province-wide system of union boards for separate school purposes is infeasible. The most practicable scheme which admits of general application is the present arrangement permitting formation in a public school section of a township, or within a city, town, or village, of a separate school corporation with power to establish and operate a school or schools, together with statutory provision for the establishment under specified conditions, where desired, of a union board to administer the several Roman Catholic separate schools formerly under the jurisdiction of a number of boards. We therefore recommend

- (a) *that provision continue to be made for the formation of union boards for Roman Catholic separate school purposes;*
- (b) *that the number of members of a Roman Catholic union separate school board be 5.*

53. The power of a Roman Catholic separate school board to establish and operate a central school and to transport pupils thereto is indirectly limited by Section 19 of the Separate Schools Act of 1863 and by Section 56 of the present *Separate Schools Act*, which require as a qualification for support of a separate school residence within three miles in a direct line of the site of the school-house. As stated in Brief 146, submitted by the Ontario Catholic Education Council:

¹Urban centres and townships.

As a consequence of the provisions of the above section, [Section 56 of the present *Separate Schools Act*] the supporters of a separate school must reside within a circle the radius of which is three miles, the centre being the school-house. A Roman Catholic living outside of this circle may not legally, as far as this section provides, be a separate school supporter . . .

The Council urged:

. . . that an amendment be made to section 56 of the *Separate Schools Act* to permit a Roman Catholic to remain a separate school supporter when the school . . . is closed, under a Union Separate School Board, the pupils being provided with transportation to another school or other schools.

In urban centres, or in other densely populated areas, there is little evidence of any adverse effects of this restriction. Roman Catholics in such areas who may desire to support a separate school usually find that their place of residence is within three miles of one, and that transportation is not necessary. The limitation affects mainly those who live in rural parts of the province. As we have shown, the Roman Catholic population tends to be concentrated in certain areas, as is pre-supposed by the three-mile limit. Indeed, far from being a restriction, the three-mile limit may be regarded as an advantage, since it enables municipal and other boundaries to be disregarded. It has been urged that “. . . the legislative facilities for establishing larger units of school administration for public schools be extended to the separate school portion of the Provincial school system. . .”¹ Whatever the advantages or disadvantages of such a change, necessitating, as it would, departure from the provision of Section 56 of *The Separate Schools Act*, we are of opinion, after long and thoughtful consideration, that in this respect adherence to the principles confirmed at Confederation will not permit amendment.² The residential qualification as determined by the three-mile limit is a right of Roman Catholic separate school supporters which cannot be abrogated. It is not without significance that it was by the Act of 1863, in the preparation and advancement of which the Roman Catholic Church authorities played no small part, that the three-mile limit was first introduced. Previously, under the Act of 1855, the boundaries of a separate school “section” had been co-terminous with those of the public school section.³

54. Apparently, it has been the policy of the Department of Education to regard favourably an interpretation of the provisions of Section 32 of *The Separate Schools Act* relating to union boards to the effect that a central school might be operated for the accommodation of all pupils attending the former individual separate schools, subject to the maintenance of the original school buildings in condition for immediate occupancy. Thus,

¹Brief 146, *The Roman Catholic Separate Schools of Ontario*, submitted by the Ontario Catholic Education Council, Second Supplementary Statement, p. 19.

²For our further discussion and recommendation on this point, see subsequent sections of this chapter.

³See comment by Ryerson on this point, as reported in J. G. Hodgins, *The Legislation and History of Separate Schools in Upper Canada*, p. 208.

transportation of pupils in some such cases has been permitted and the cost recognized for legislative grant purposes. We are convinced that the only reason underlying the permission to organize a union separate school board is administrative. For separate schools, the establishment of central schools or the transportation of pupils residing more than three miles in a direct line from the site of the school is, we believe, contrary to the provisions of the statutes. Accordingly, we recommend

that a union separate school board be required to maintain and operate schools on the sites of the separate schools which were formerly under the jurisdiction of the boards comprising the union, and that, where such a school has been closed, or is closed, the supporters thereof forfeit their exemption from support of the public school unless they reside within three miles in a direct line of another separate school in actual operation and have elected to support it.

Qualifications of Trustees and Electors

55. In order to be elected as a trustee at the initial constitution of a separate school corporation, under the Separate Schools Act of 1863, a person had to be:

- (a) a British subject;
- (b) not less than 21 years of age;
- (c) resident within the public school section, or an adjoining section, within which the separate school was to be established.

If we assume that these qualifications of trustees were meant to apply also in the years subsequent to the initial establishment, there being no evidence to the contrary, a trustee was not required to be a Roman Catholic, a freeholder or a householder, or to be a supporter of the Roman Catholic separate school. Under the present Act, the qualifications for election as a trustee are: under Section 21, that a person be a Roman Catholic and head of a family; and under Section 24, that he be a British subject and not less than 21 years of age. Under Sections 97 and 98, a trustee must vacate his seat if (among other reasons) he ceases to reside within the municipality in the case of an urban school, or within three miles of the school in the case of a rural school.

56. In order to be qualified as an elector, at least for the initial election of trustees and presumably for subsequent elections, a person had, according to the Act of 1863, to be:

- (a) a Roman Catholic;
- (b) present at the public meeting called for the election of trustees;
- (c) a freeholder or householder;
- (d) not a candidate for election as a trustee.

In order to qualify as an elector under the present Act, a person has to be: under Section 21, a Roman Catholic and head of a family; under Section 25, in the case of rural schools, a householder or freeholder of the full age

of 21 years, and a supporter of the rural separate school; and, in the case of urban schools, under Sections 38, 40, and 41, on the municipal voters' list as a supporter of a Roman Catholic separate school and, in cities and towns, a Roman Catholic and the wife or husband of a supporter of a Roman Catholic separate school. As qualifications of major importance for electors and trustees,¹ we recommend

that the qualifications of electors of, and trustees for, Roman Catholic separate school boards include:

- (i) *being named in the last revised voters' list, where such is prepared, as entitled to vote at municipal elections;*
- (ii) *being not less than 21 years of age;*
- (iii) *being a Canadian or other British subject;*
- (iv) *being a supporter, or being a Roman Catholic and the wife or husband of a supporter, of the Roman Catholic separate school.*

Powers and Duties of Trustees

57. At the time of Confederation, Roman Catholic separate school boards were independent of any municipal authority and of other local education authorities in all matters relating to the administration of their schools. Control was, however, exercised by the central authority through Acts and regulations. Thus, local autonomy in administrative matters was a right held by statute by Roman Catholic separate school supporters at the time of Confederation. In our opinion, any departure from this status might be construed as an action prejudicially affecting the rights held with respect to denominational schools within the meaning of Section 93 of the *British North America Act*. Therefore we recommend

that, subject to the Acts and regulations of the Department of Education, boards of trustees of Roman Catholic separate schools continue to exercise autonomy in the local administration of the school or schools under their jurisdiction.

58. Because of the existence of two Acts, with changes in one not being made applicable to the other, the duties and responsibilities of public school and Roman Catholic separate school boards have come to differ in many respects. Such divergencies have apparently arisen through inadvertence. There is no valid reason why the duties and responsibilities of boards responsible for elementary education should differ. Accordingly we recommend

that, subject to the rights and privileges specified in the Act of 1863 with respect to Roman Catholic separate schools, the duties and responsibilities of a Roman Catholic separate school board, or a member thereof,

¹For our general recommendations on these matters, see Chapters X and XI. The requirements therein set forth should apply, *mutatis mutandis*, to the specific situation herein discussed.

be the same as those of a public school board, or a member thereof, respectively.

59. Penalties for boards of trustees are at present not the same for public school and Roman Catholic separate school boards of trustees. Since there is no logical reason for varying penalties according to type of school, we recommend

that, subject to the rights and privileges specified in the Act of 1863 with respect to Roman Catholic separate schools, the penalties applicable to a Roman Catholic separate school board, or a member thereof, be the same as those applicable to a public school board, or a member thereof, respectively.

60. There is no statutory authority for the dissolution of a separate school corporation or for the closing of a school under the jurisdiction of a Roman Catholic separate school board other than by action of the separate school corporation itself; nor can it be otherwise without prejudicially affecting rights held at the time of Confederation. But a special case demands attention. If a board ceases to maintain and operate the school or schools under its jurisdiction, in our opinion the reason for the board's existence automatically disappears. We recommend

(a) *that where a Roman Catholic separate school board ceases to operate the school or schools under its jurisdiction, it be required within a reasonable period of time to transfer to the Provincial Treasurer, to be held in trust for any separate school corporation which may later be organized in the area concerned, any sums of money remaining after outstanding financial obligations have been satisfied;*

(b) *that the separate school board be thereupon automatically dissolved.*

Attendance of Pupils

61. Only those children whose parents or guardians are supporters of a particular Roman Catholic separate school have a right to attend it. At the time of Confederation, the trustees of a separate school could allow children from "other School Sections" to attend, provided their parents or guardians were Roman Catholics. Provisions permitting the attendance of such "non-resident" pupils are, in our opinion, reasonable. Accordingly we recommend

(a) *that provision be made for attendance at a separate school of children of parents or guardians who, being Roman Catholics, are not qualified by residence to become separate school supporters, upon payment by the parents or guardians of fees calculated on the basis of the net cost of education to the supporters of the said school;*

- (b) *that Sections 2 (2) and 3 (2) of Ontario Regulations 240/48, Pupils Residing on Crown Lands or in Territorial Districts, be revoked.*

Such Roman Catholic parents or guardians would not, however, be exempted from payment of the public school tax of the area in which they reside. Nor, in light of Section 21 of the Act of 1863, could there be any payment by a public school board to a separate school board of fees on behalf of such pupils.

62. We recommend, also,

- (a) *that provision be made whereby a child of a supporter of a separate school may attend another separate school in the same or an adjoining municipality upon payment of fees by the separate school board determined upon the basis of the net cost of education to the supporters of the separate school to be attended;*
- (b) *that such attendance at a separate school of a non-resident pupil be permitted only where the following conditions are satisfied, as certified in writing by the local inspector of separate schools,¹ to the parent and to the secretary of each board affected:*
- (i) *that the school to be attended is more readily accessible;*
 - (ii) *that the required accommodation is available.*

FINANCING ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOLS

63. Local financial support of elementary schools is based on the fundamental principle that each and every person paying rates is deemed a supporter of public schools unless he, being a Roman Catholic and otherwise qualified to do so, has elected to exercise his right to become a separate school supporter. The fundamental principle underlying local support for Roman Catholic separate school purposes is that a Roman Catholic ratepayer is not compelled to support separate schools but, if otherwise qualified to do so, he may elect to support a particular separate school. This voluntary election to become a separate school supporter may be revoked by the Roman Catholic ratepayer at any time that he so desires. It is a corollary that public schools enjoy a much sounder financial basis than do separate schools, since the latter are subject to greater fluctuations in local support.

64. Subject to certain exceptions to which reference will be made presently, the basic qualifications enabling a person to become a supporter of a Roman Catholic separate school are, as previously stated, three in number: he must be a Roman Catholic; he must be a ratepayer; and he must reside within three miles in a direct line of the site of a Roman Catholic separate school. The particulars of the successive statutes, both before and after Confederation, dealing with these matters have been referred to in preceding chapters. Several changes have been effected since Confederation, and a number of these are of major import. If all Roman

¹For a discussion of the supervision of instruction in separate schools, see Chapter XIII.

Catholic ratepayers, wherever resident, were by law supporters of Roman Catholic separate schools, some of the statutory changes would be of little or no moment. But such is not the case. The complete freedom of the individual to elect or choose is the bed-rock of the support of such schools. It is well known that many Roman Catholics who are fully qualified in law to become supporters of separate schools are not, and do not wish to be, supporters of these schools. It is also true that many Roman Catholics by choice send their children to public schools. It is essential that the safeguards which ensure to these Roman Catholics their right of choice be not sacrificed. The rights and privileges of such a "minority" must be protected with the same zealous care as are the rights and privileges of the "majority" of the same religious faith. And the rights of public schools and their supporters must be protected. That all of these claims be reconciled and that each be treated with fairness and justice must be the aims governing the method of determining allocation of support. To this end the method of 1863 was well devised. Each and every Roman Catholic ratepayer, whether as tenant or owner, had to make a personal election in writing in order to become a supporter of a separate school. Unless and until such written election was made, the ratepayer was rated as a public school supporter. It was a matter of individual choice and, to ensure fairness and justice, must always so remain. It has been said that the demand for a written declaration is not only irksome and unnecessary but, in this day and generation, unworkable. But a written declaration is required of citizens, without complaint or injustice, in matters which may be considered of lesser importance, such as transfer of insurance and motor car licences, or notification of change of address.

65. With this in mind, it is well to note the changes which have been effected since Confederation. The present provisions of *The Separate Schools Act* represent not only an alteration in the method involved in giving notice, but also a departure from basic principles and qualifications. As a result of the enactment of the present Section 60, the residence qualification of the ratepayer electing is abrogated in the case of an owner of unoccupied land. In Section 56 of the present Act, the wording of Section 19 of the Act of 1863, which imposed the "three-mile limit" on residence qualification, has had grafted on it the phrase "Subject to the other provisions of this Part . . ." Thus, in certain instances, ratepayers who are not resident within the three-mile radius of the site of the school-house are permitted to become separate school supporters. No longer need the form of notice of election to support be in writing in the prescribed manner; it may be oral. Today, the notice need not be given by the Roman Catholic ratepayer or even by his agent; it may be recorded by the assessor who knows personally that the ratepayer is a Roman Catholic. By this last provision, which is contained in Section 30 of *The Assessment Act*, the reputed status of the ratepayer as a member of the Roman Catholic Church

rather than the free election of the ratepayer has become the basis of support. In fact, as the legislation has been interpreted recently by the court,¹ notice under Section 55 of *The Separate Schools Act* is not now required.

66. Thus, it appears to be clear—and the opinion is supported by judicial decisions—that ratepayers who are known to the assessor personally to be members of the Roman Catholic Church may find themselves entered as supporters of Roman Catholic separate schools without any exercise of the individual power of election or choice which was the basis of support at Confederation. It may be argued that the individual would still have the right of appeal against such assessment and so could regain his normal, and perchance preferred, position as a public school supporter. This is correct. But it means that the onus has been shifted completely; the Roman Catholic ratepayer desiring to support public schools is required to take negative action, in conflict with the authorities of his church, to regain his primary status as a supporter of public schools.

67. Incidentally, the form of assessment book prescribed for use of assessors contains a column (23) for which there appears to be no justification. In it the assessor is required to record the religion of the ratepayer. This information is in addition to that as to the type of school supported. It appears to be unnecessary for assessment purposes. The sole purpose it serves would seem to be that of making information available as to Roman Catholic ratepayers who have not elected to support separate schools. At no time has it been suggested that the process of assessing is, in part, a religious census.

68. We recommend

- (a) *that written notice be required to be given by a Roman Catholic ratepayer desiring either to become a separate school supporter or to withdraw his support from a separate school;*
- (b) *that this written notice be required to be filed on or before the 1st day of March in any year with the clerk of the municipality, who shall deliver a certificate to the effect that the notice has been given and showing the date thereof;*
- (c) *that this written notice be required in order to determine rating for support for separate schools in addition to exemption from the payment of rates for the support of public schools;*
- (d) *that for every person who has given such written notice the clerk of the municipality record the following information in separate columns in the index book:*
 - (i) *name in full of the person so electing to support a separate school;*
 - (ii) *address of same;*
 - (iii) *short description of property or properties for which he is entitled to, and has requested, exemption from public school*

¹*McCarty vs. Hird*, 1947 Ontario Reports, p. 615.

rates and on which he elects to be rated for separate school support;

(iv) *date when the written notice was received by the clerk;*

(v) *remarks (including, if applicable, date of withdrawal of support);*

(e) *that the assessor in completing the assessment roll shall enter as separate school supporters only those whose names are recorded in the index book as having elected to become, and who continue to be, separate school supporters;*

(f) *that responsibility rest with the separate school supporter to give to the clerk of the municipality written notice of change of address and change of status of property or properties;*

(g) *that, in view of the requirement of a written notice and the record of the index book, column 23 of the Assessment Roll be omitted as serving no useful purpose;*

(h) *that The Assessment Act, The Separate Schools Act, and all other relevant Acts be amended to give effect to these recommendations.*

69. We feel it incumbent upon us, in view of the varying interpretations placed upon it, to refer again to the residence qualification stated in Section 19 of the Separate Schools Act of 1863. There is no question but that Section 60 of the present *Separate Schools Act* is not in accord with Section 19 of the Act of 1863, giving as it does a person residing more than three miles from a separate school the right to become a supporter of it. We therefore recommend

that Section 60 of the present Separate Schools Act be repealed, and the words "Subject to the other provisions of this Part" be deleted from Section 56 of the said Act.

70. As we pointed out earlier in our discussion, Section 19 of the Separate Schools Act of 1863 is not merely restrictive; it gives a right to any Roman Catholic residing within three miles of the site of the school-house, irrespective of municipal or other boundaries, to become a supporter of the Roman Catholic separate school. This is a right which any later enactment may not prejudicially affect, and one which any arrangement for the administration or financing of Roman Catholic separate schools must include. Accordingly we recommend

that Section 19 of the Separate Schools Act of 1863 be included unchanged in new legislation relating to Roman Catholic separate schools.

71. The phrase "the site of the School House" as used in Section 19 of the Separate Schools Act of 1863 is subject to varying interpretations. Reference to the Common Schools Act of 1859 does not serve to clarify the matter; the phrases "school site" and "site of an established school house" are both used in Section 30. In our opinion, the intention was, as expressed in Brief 146, submitted by the Ontario Catholic Education Council, that the three-mile distance was to be measured from the school-

house proper, i.e. the buildings used for instructional purposes. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that the phrase "site of the School House" in Section 19 of the Act of 1863 be interpreted to mean*
 - (i) *in the case of a school maintained and operated by a board, the area occupied by the main building used for instructional purposes;*
 - (ii) *in the case of initial establishment of a school, and providing that the school-house is to be built within a reasonable period of time, to be specified by the Minister of Education, the area to be occupied by the main building to be used for instructional purposes;*
 - (iii) *in case the building has been destroyed by fire or other cause, and providing that the school-house is to be rebuilt within a reasonable period of time, to be specified by the Minister of Education, the area to be occupied by the main building to be used for instructional purposes;*
- (b) *that, where a school is not in continuous operation, owing to a deficiency of pupils or to transportation of pupils to another school, unless action be taken resulting in the renewed operation of the school within a reasonable period of time, to be specified by the Minister of Education, the site of the school-house for the purpose of Section 19 of the Act of 1863 be deemed not to exist; and that, in such event, the persons who were supporters of the school be deemed to be supporters of the public school of the area in which they reside.*

72. We devoted a considerable amount of time to a study of the relative financial resources available for the support of public and Roman Catholic separate schools. The ratio of total assessment for public school purposes to total assessment for separate school purposes, on the basis of per pupil of average daily attendance, is as 2.8 to 1. If a scheme were devised whereby rates for public and separate school purposes were levied only on assessments on residential land and buildings and farm land and buildings, the corresponding ratio would be approximately 2.3 to 1. We may also record the following conclusions of one additional analysis not elsewhere reported. For the public and separate schools in which French is not a subject of instruction, assessment is concentrated in urban centres (where there is the lower percentage for payment of legislative grants); whereas for those in which French is a subject of instruction, a much greater proportion of the total assessment is in rural areas (where there is the higher percentage for payment of legislative grants). Data relating to approved cost show the same general pattern of distribution as that reflected in the distribution of legislative grants. There is a marked difference in the assessment per pupil as between public and separate schools, and also as between

separate schools in which French is not, and those in which it is, a subject of instruction. The amount of legislative grant per pupil received by public schools is considerably greater than that received by separate schools. For separate schools there is a general difference between those in which French is not, and those in which it is, a subject of instruction—the latter have more limited financial resources than the former, and receive proportionately greater assistance in the form of legislative grants. Although it is generally realized that the financial resources available for separate schools are less than those for public schools, we were amazed at the disparity revealed.

73. The legal right to elect to support separate denominational schools does not impose any obligation upon ratepayers who are supporters of the public school system to bear the expense of separate schools, even in part. If an epidemic arises, a municipality or the province may require all citizens to be immunized and may set up public centres for that purpose, free of charge. The municipality or province does not say that the individual may not go to his own physician to be immunized if he wishes. But, if the citizen elects to have his own physician do the immunization, he pays the bill—he does not expect the public to do so. The same principle holds good if a ratepayer elects to support separate rather than public schools.

74. In the discussion in Brief 146, submitted by the Ontario Catholic Education Council, on the question of the allocation of taxes derived from corporations and public utilities, it was urged that separate schools be given an “equitable division” of such taxes to “permit Roman Catholics to support the school of their choice adequately by levying on all the assets in which they have a proprietary interest, in whatever form that may be.” In studying this question, we found that no division of such taxes—on a per pupil, or per capita, or any other similar basis—would bring the financial resources of separate schools to equality in any sense with those of public schools. The crux of the matter is not in the division of such taxes; it lies in the disparity between the total assessments of public and separate school supporters based on personally owned real property—assessment on residential land and buildings, and farm land and buildings. With a ratio of 2.3 to 1 in favour of public schools in the matter of these basic resources, no addition of other resources—which in total do not equal the assessment on personally owned real property—can compensate for the original disparity. We are compelled to conclude that those who elect to become supporters of separate schools must also voluntarily elect to assume a greater financial burden than would be the case if they had remained public school supporters. This is the price to be paid for the privilege of enjoying denominational schools.

75. It is generally appreciated that it is difficult, if not impossible, to secure a division of the taxes derived from bodies such as corporations and public utilities as between public and separate schools, on a basis acceptable to both. Any division leads to a fantastic classification of a non-personal

body or organization, which cannot be “a Roman Catholic”, as a separate school supporter. In Section 66 (2) of the present *Separate Schools Act*, for example, the direction is given: “The assessor shall thereupon enter the corporation as a separate school supporter in the assessment roll . . .” and the same corporation must also be entered as a public school supporter. Be this as it may, the basic difficulty lies in the determination of a basis for the division of taxes and in the fact that, even if a division were established, the disparity in local financial resources as between public and separate schools would not be greatly lessened for the province as a whole.

76. Since, in our opinion, the division of corporation and public-utility taxes does not yield a satisfactory solution, we propose that this approach be abandoned and, instead, that all such taxes be removed completely from the support of elementary schools, public and separate, and be allotted to the support of secondary schools and junior colleges. We fully appreciate that it will be claimed that this allocation may impose some hardship on public school boards in certain areas. Our investigations have convinced us, however, that under our proposed reorganization of the educational system and plan of distribution of legislative grants, there will be no such effect. On the other hand, our proposal is calculated to solve the vexing problem of corporation and public-utility taxes, to make relatively simple the task of determining financial support for Roman Catholic separate schools in accordance with fundamental principles agreed upon at Confederation, and to make equal, as nearly as possible, local financial resources for public and separate schools.¹

77. As stated in Brief 146:

The estate of a Roman Catholic separate school supporter who is deceased ceases to be assessed for separate school purposes once a trust company begins to act as executor of the estate. The trust company, being temporarily in possession of the properties of the estate, but being ineligible under the provisions of Section 66 *Separate Schools Act*, to be assessed for separate schools, is assessed for public schools as to all its holdings, regardless of how the deceased owner of the estate was assessed previous to his death.

In our view, this practice unjustly deprives a separate school of support and is, therefore, inequitable. Accordingly we recommend

that the real property of a Roman Catholic separate school supporter which at the time of his death was assessed for the support of a Roman Catholic separate school continue to be so assessed until such time as the real property is disposed of, conveyed, or distributed, this period of time not to exceed three years.

78. Since a Roman Catholic separate school may have supporters residing in two or more adjoining municipalities, it not infrequently happens that inequalities in assessment arise as between supporters residing in different municipalities. As the board must apply the same mill rate to

¹For our recommendation on this matter, see Chapter XXVIII.

all, the inequalities in assessment result in inequalities in taxes in relation to actual property values. Such a situation will be corrected when our general recommendation regarding the equalization of assessment on a provincial basis is implemented. Pending such, or in the event that assessments are not so equalized, we recommend

that a separate school board be empowered, for separate school purposes, to equalize the assessment of the property of the supporters of the separate school or schools under its jurisdiction.

79. Both public and Roman Catholic separate school boards receive revenue from what are termed officially "other sources", meaning sources other than provincial grants, local tax levies, and, in the case of public schools, township grants. The major "other sources" include interest, Clergy Reserves or municipal funds, rentals, fees from individuals or boards, subscriptions, and donations. In the *Report of the Minister of Education* for the year 1948, revenue from these sources for the financial year 1948 was reported to be \$1,408,710 of a total revenue of \$54,274,747 (2.6 per cent) for public schools, as compared with \$652,389 of a total revenue of \$7,779,408 (8.4 per cent) for Roman Catholic separate schools. Exception is not taken to the receipt and disbursement by a board of trustees of revenues from "other sources"; but, in our opinion, legislative grants should not be paid on expenditures from funds so received, except for subscriptions which can be certified as being in lieu of taxation. This is mentioned here since the receipt of subscriptions is a practice followed, in the main, in connection only with Roman Catholic separate schools.

80. Under Section 7 of the Separate Schools Act of 1863, trustees of Roman Catholic separate schools had the power: ". . . to impose, levy and collect School rates or subscriptions, upon and from persons sending children to, or subscribing towards the support of such Schools . . ."¹ The present *Separate Schools Act*, Section 67 (1), states: "The board of a separate school may impose and levy school rates and collect school rates and subscriptions upon and from persons sending children to or subscribing towards the support of such schools . . ." At present, therefore, a Roman Catholic separate school board has not the power it had under the Act of 1863 to impose and levy subscriptions.

81. The phrasing of the Act of 1863 clearly indicates that subscriptions were to be levied in lieu of taxation where there was a legal right to impose a tax for particular school purposes but no tax was levied. A subscription from a donor who was not subject to any levy or assessment for taxes could not be said to be "in lieu of taxation". Under Section 67 (1) of the present *Separate Schools Act*, while subscriptions may be collected, they are not apparently considered to be in lieu of taxation. In our opinion, the power held by trustees under the Act of 1863 to impose, levy, and collect

¹A public school board has not the power to "impose and levy" subscriptions, nor did a common school board have that power at the time of Confederation.

subscriptions in lieu of taxation upon supporters of separate schools should be restored. Such revenue should, we believe, be considered for legislative grant purposes to be money derived from local taxation. At present, subscriptions, whether or not they have been levied by the trustees, are apparently assumed, for legislative grant purposes, to be in lieu of taxation. With this interpretation we do not agree. Under the present regulations,¹ no reduction of "approved cost", upon which legislative grants are paid, is made in respect to receipts from sources such as subscriptions and donations. We do not agree with this practice in determining approved cost for legislative grant purposes.²

82. As noted in the preceding chapter, there is but limited control over the authority of a Roman Catholic separate school board to borrow money or issue debentures for school purposes. An indirect control is exercised by the Department of Education, however, through its approval for legislative grant purposes of expenditures on school buildings. This is not equivalent to the control exercised in this respect by the township or municipal council and by the Ontario Municipal Board over boards of trustees of public schools. Nor, in our opinion, in view of the rights guaranteed at Confederation, can there be any direct control exercised by any body or organization over separate school boards in these matters. The only control lies with those lending the money and with the supporters of the separate school. But insufficient security for the money borrowed and unlimited authority by a separate school board to borrow may be disadvantageous: a number of separate school boards have defaulted in their payments of interest and repayment of principal; and, partly no doubt as a consequence, Roman Catholic separate school bonds are frequently sold at a discount. This situation cannot be remedied directly, but we suggest that separate school boards should voluntarily submit all proposed debenture issues to the Ontario Municipal Board, or to the Central Advisory Council, for advice. We can, however, in this matter only suggest.

83. In a number of briefs, a basis was proposed for the division of legislative grants as between public and Roman Catholic separate schools. The Inter-Church Committee on Protestant-Roman Catholic Relations recommended, in Brief 113:

That the total legislative grant appropriated by the Department of Education for elementary education shall be apportioned into two parts, one for the Public Schools, and the other for the Separate Schools; and that these two parts shall be in the ratio of the average attendance of the Public Schools to that of the Separate Schools for the immediately preceding school year . . .

In Brief 201, submitted by the Joint Legislation Committee of the Grand Orange Lodges of Ontario East and West, it was proposed:

¹*General Legislative Grants*. O. Reg. 134/50.

²For our recommendation on this point, since it applies to public schools also, see Chapter XXVIII.

. . . that the total grant [for public and separate schools] be divided between the two in the proportion that the total provincial assessment of the public schools bears to the total provincial assessments of the separate schools . . .

The Ontario Catholic Education Council suggested, in Brief 146:

The Legislative Grant should be based partly on attendance, teachers employed and need for poor communities. Provincial aid should vary inversely according to the equalized assessment and directly as the school rate increases . . .

84. The Separate Schools Act of 1863 provided a basis for the division of legislative grants between public and separate schools. Section 20 of that Act stated:

Every Separate School shall be entitled to a share in the fund annually granted by the Legislature of this Province for the support of Common Schools, and shall be entitled also to a share in all other public grants, investments and allotments for Common School purposes now made or hereafter to be made by the Province or the Municipal authorities, according to the average number of pupils attending such school during the twelve next preceding months, or during the number of months which may have elapsed from the establishment of a new Separate School, as compared with the whole average number of pupils attending School in the same City, Town, Village or Township.

In Section 106 (1) of the Common School Act of 1859,¹ one of the duties of the Chief Superintendent of Education was stated to be:

To apportion annually, on or before the first day of May, all moneys granted or provided by the Legislature for the support of Common Schools in Upper Canada, and not otherwise appropriated by law to the several Counties, Townships, Cities, Towns and Incorporated Villages . . .

The Legislature reserved the right to appropriate certain sums by law, and the judgment of the Privy Council in the Tiny Township Case was, as we have stated in the preceding chapter, that only the balance of the amount voted by the Legislature after these appropriations were made was to be divided between public and separate schools on the basis provided in Section 20 of the Separate Schools Act of 1863. Accordingly, it is possible for the Legislature to distribute as it sees fit the whole or any part of the amount voted annually for the support of schools.

85. Our recommendations on the bases to be employed in distributing grants are given in a later chapter, where we urge that, in the first instance, the Legislature each year appropriate by law the amounts to be distributed in support of schools in each stage of education in the provincially controlled educational system. Through this initial apportionment by law, a sum would be made available for distribution in support of elementary education to both public and separate schools. As to the apportionment between public and separate schools of the amount thus made available for grants in support of elementary education, we propose that the total amount so voted be divided into two sums: one for the support of public schools; and the other for the support of Roman Catholic separate schools. The two

¹*The Upper Canada Common School Act*, C.S.U.C., Ch. 64.

amounts so determined and voted separately should then be distributed among the Roman Catholic separate schools and the public schools, respectively, to equalize as far as possible, on a provincial basis, the local burden in support of elementary education. Our grant plan devised on this basis, in our opinion, provides an equitable division of legislative grants as between public and separate schools and makes possible for each an equitable distribution on the basis of need.

IMPLEMENTING OUR RECOMMENDATIONS

86. The reorganization of our educational system will necessitate a comprehensive review and revision of all Acts relating to education. Amendments to existing Acts will not be sufficient to permit implementation of our recommendations, nor would such a procedure be advisable. All Acts relating to education should be consolidated into one Education Act, and we have so recommended in an earlier chapter. Provisions relating to Roman Catholic separate schools should, we believe, be included in this consolidated Act, care being exercised to ensure that fundamental rights or privileges in respect to separate schools guaranteed by the Confederation pact are not prejudicially affected and that all the provisions enacted are in accord with the fundamental principles we have stated. Our recommendations on specific matters made in this chapter, if they are to be implemented, must be included in such a consolidation. It follows also that all regulations made pursuant to the present Acts must be carefully reviewed and revised to accord with the provisions of the new Education Act and the fundamental principles enumerated. For convenience, such regulations should be consolidated and organized into one volume.

87. As stated in the judgment of the Privy Council in the *Tiny Township Case* of 1928, Section 93 (3) of the *British North America Act* gives a right of appeal in the case of any Act or decision of the Legislature which takes:

. . . away a right or privilege which is other than a legal one from the Protestant or Roman Catholic minority in relation to education . . . The step is one from mere legality to administrative propriety, a totally different matter . . .¹

This right of appeal is stated in the said sub-section of the *British North America Act* in the following words:

. . . an appeal shall lie to the Governor General in Council from any Act or decision of any Provincial authority affecting any right or privilege of the Protestant or Roman Catholic minority of the Queen's subjects in relation to education.

That an appeal may be advanced under this section, following implementation of our recommendations, we fully appreciate. In fact, an appeal would lie, under the same section, to the Governor General in Council from *any* Act or decision of the Legislature in respect to separate schools by supporters of separate schools or by any person or group of persons opposed to

¹97 *Law Journal, Privy Council*, p. 75.

separate schools. This possibility was recognized in the concluding part of the Privy Council judgment previously referred to, where it is stated:

It may be that the new laws will hamper the freedom of the Roman Catholics in their denominational schools. They may conceivably be or have been subjected to injustice of a kind that they can submit to the Governor-General in Council, and through him to the Parliament of Canada. But they are still left with separate schools, which are none the less actual because the liberty of giving secondary and higher education in them may be abridged by regulation. Such an abridgment may be in the usual course when a national system of education has attained a certain stage in its development, and it would be difficult to forego this power if the grading which may be essential is also to be possible. Their Lordships do not think grading is in itself inconsistent with such rights to separation of schools as were reserved at Confederation.¹

88. It will be manifest from our earlier discussion that we agree fully with this conclusion of their Lordships in the *Tiny Township Case*. We sincerely believe that legislation implementing our recommendations will not "prejudicially affect any Right or Privilege with Respect to Denominational Schools which any Class of Persons have by Law in the Province at the Union." Our position with reference to separate schools is admirably summarized in the following sentence from the judgment of their Lordships in this important case:

Examination of the statutes and of the history of the subject have satisfied their Lordships that, while a settlement was come to in 1863 with both Roman Catholics and Protestants, a settlement which in so far as it remained unaltered at Confederation, must be strictly maintained, the Province showed in the wording of the successive earlier statutes the intention to preserve for the rest the power to mould the educational system in the interests of the public at large, as distinguished from any section of it, however important . . .²

It is in the "interests of the public at large" while safeguarding the rights and privileges of the minority that we have acted in drafting our recommendations.

¹*Ibid.*, p. 84.

²*Ibid.*, pp. 82-83.

CHAPTER XX

PROTESTANT AND COLOURED SEPARATE SCHOOLS IN THE REORGANIZED EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

1. It is evident from submissions made to us that, generally speaking, little is known of the statutory provisions for Coloured and Protestant separate schools in this province. The phrase "separate schools" is commonly used to mean only Roman Catholic separate schools, as if there were legally and in fact only one type of separate school. For example, in Brief 113, submitted by the Inter-Church Committee on Protestant-Roman Catholic Relations, the context makes it clear that the words "separate schools" as used throughout the brief refer only to Roman Catholic separate schools, despite the fact that the concluding statement in section VI (F) (6) reads as follows:

While we have no enthusiasm for Protestant Separate Schools, we think that so long as they are allowed they should have as favourable a legal position as Roman Catholic Separate Schools, and that the same provisions of the Separate Schools Act should, as far as possible, apply to both. Of course, the changes in the Separate Schools Act asked for in this brief should be made before the Act applies to all Separate Schools.

Likewise, in Briefs 146, 196, and 206, submitted by the Ontario Catholic Education Council, The Catholic Bishops of Ontario, and St. Michael's College, respectively, "Separate" is generally as a synonym for "Roman Catholic Separate". For instance, the specific recommendations made in the last-mentioned briefs apply only to Roman Catholic separate schools and their supporters. A sentence in Brief 196 reads: ". . . The safeguarding of the rights and interests of the Separate Schools must ever be for Catholics a vital concern." From the context, it is obvious that the concern expressed is on behalf of Roman Catholic separate schools only.

2. The present statutory provisions relating to "Protestant and Coloured Separate Schools"¹ have remained practically unaltered for almost 90 years. In Part I of the present *Separate Schools Act* are cross-references to, and incorporations of, some sections of that part of the Act that relates to Roman Catholic separate schools. This leads to difficulties in that the

¹Found in the first fifteen sections of the present *Separate Schools Act*, being Part I thereof.

sections so incorporated cannot, in their present wording, apply directly to Protestant separate schools. At the time of Confederation, the Separate Schools Act contained two parts; the first related to "Protestant and Coloured People", and the second to "Roman Catholic Separate Schools". Some sections of the first part of the Act were incorporated by reference from the Common Schools Act of that day, not from that part of the Separate Schools Act which dealt with Roman Catholic separate schools.

Separate Schools for Coloured People

3. As early as the year 1793, the Legislature of Upper Canada forbade by statute the importation of slaves into the province and provided that all children of slaves then in the province should be free at the age of 25. During the period 1777 to 1804, the northern states of the American Union either abolished slavery or adopted measures for its gradual abolition within their boundaries. However, since Chatham was the northern terminal of what became known as the "underground railroad" for escaped slaves, many of the latter came to Upper Canada and settled in the district now forming the counties of Kent and Essex. The education of the children of these escaped slaves constituted a problem, since the local school authorities rebuffed attempts of coloured parents to enrol their children in the common schools. Even when such children were enrolled, the reception given them by their white schoolfellows was not cordial. Accordingly, the Legislature, in the Common Schools Act of 1850, granted to coloured people, regardless of religious affiliation, the right to establish separate schools.

4. At no time has the number of coloured people in the province been large; according to census figures it amounted in 1941 to only 7,495 out of a total population of 3,787,655. Coloured separate schools reached their maximum number of three in the year 1875, when Chatham, Sandwich, and Anderton each had one such school. The last Coloured separate school to operate—that at Chatham—ceased to exist in 1891 and the pupils were transferred to the public school. There are now no Coloured separate schools in Ontario; and it is noteworthy that no representation was received by the Commission with respect to such schools. A great and laudable change has taken place, particularly during the past quarter-century, in the general public attitude in this province toward coloured people. The children of coloured citizens are accorded the same educational advantages that are available to other children in public schools. In fact, white children now play and work happily with coloured children; and the latter enter into school games, play on teams, are members of school orchestras, generally make satisfactory progress in their studies, and are frequently the most popular pupils in the school.

5. It should be recalled, however, that coloured people, as such, had no rights or privileges preserved to them by the *British North America Act*.

This was confirmed in the judgment of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in the case of *Mackell vs. Ottawa Separate School Trustees*:¹ “. . . the class of persons to whom the right or privilege is reserved must, in their Lordships’ opinion, be a class of persons determined according to religious belief, and not according to race or language . . .” Hence, it is fully within the power of the Legislature of Ontario to repeal those provisions of *The Separate Schools Act* which apply to Coloured separate schools. We feel that it is highly undesirable to continue on the statute books any provisions permitting a separate system of schools based on racial grounds. Accordingly, we recommend

that the statutory provisions relating to Coloured separate schools be repealed.

Protestant Separate Schools

6. The position of Protestant separate schools is somewhat different. As indicated elsewhere, if the school system of Ontario were being started afresh, unhampered by fetters of the past, we would oppose the institution of separate schools of any description or kind. But such is not the case. To appreciate the legal position of Protestant separate schools and their present status, a brief review of legislation relating to them is desirable.

7. The origin of Protestant separate schools, as of Roman Catholic separate schools, may be found in an Act of the Province of Canada of 1841. A dissenting minority of the inhabitants in a township or parish, but in no other type of municipality, professing a religious faith different from that of the majority, could “establish and maintain one or more Common Schools”. In the Common Schools Act of 1843, however, the privilege of establishing and maintaining a “separate school” was based on the religion of the teacher in the existing school and was extended to all types of municipality. This, in effect, continues to this day to be the condition precedent for the establishment of a Protestant separate school; according to the present Act, a Protestant separate school shall not “be established in any school section except when the teacher of the public school in such section is a Roman Catholic.”²

8. It is unnecessary to review the successive enactments for Protestant separate schools: they were consolidated and re-enacted in Sections 1 to 17 inclusive of *An Act Respecting Separate Schools* of 1859.³ The rights and privileges later preserved to Protestants by Section 93 (1) of the *British North America Act* are those found in this Act. Since Confederation, the following major statutory changes relating to Protestant separate schools have been made, the year of the change being indicated in brackets:

¹1917 *Appeal Cases* 69.

²*The Separate Schools Act*, R.S.O., 1937, Ch. 362, Sec. 9.

³C.S.U.C., Ch. 65, 1859.

- (1) The application may now be made by five heads of families instead of twelve (1886).
- (2) Instead of the council of a township or the board of school trustees of a city, town, or incorporated village prescribing the limits of the section or sections of such separate schools, it is now only provided that "In a township the council shall prescribe the location of the school or schools . . ." (1913). No provision is now made for defining the limits of the section or sections.
- (3) It is now stated that the first meeting for the election of trustees shall be held and conducted in the same manner as for rural Roman Catholic separate schools (1886).
- (4) Exemption from the payment of public school rates now applies simply to "a supporter of such school" as long as he continues to be such a supporter (1913).
- (5) Protestant separate schools now share in legislative grants "in like manner as a public school" (1913).
- (6) A Certificate of Qualification can no longer be issued by the trustees to the teacher (1886).
- (7) The trustees now make their semi-annual return to the public school inspector rather than to the "Local Superintendent of Schools"; and the public school inspector makes a return only to the clerk of the municipality—not also to the public school trustees (1886).
- (8) The provisions of *The Separate Schools Act* which apply to Roman Catholic separate schools have been made applicable to trustees and teachers of Protestant separate schools (1886).

9. Not all the present statutory provisions affecting Roman Catholic separate schools extend to, or are applicable to, Protestant separate schools. At present, Roman Catholics have certain statutory rights with respect to separate schools which are not enjoyed by Protestants. For example, under Section 21 of *The Separate Schools Act*, in unorganized townships and in any part of Ontario not surveyed into townships any number of heads of families, not less than ten, who are Roman Catholics, may establish a separate school. Protestants have no power to do so. Although, by Section 50 of the same Act, teachers of Roman Catholic separate schools must be qualified in the same manner as teachers of public schools, there is no provision as to qualification or certification of teachers for Protestant separate schools. The provision of Section 60 permitting certain non-residents of a municipality to be assessed as supporters of a Roman Catholic separate school is not similarly extended to Protestants. Where land is assessed against both owner and occupant, or owner and tenant, then by Section 65 the occupant or tenant may determine whether the rates thereon shall be applied to Roman Catholic separate school purposes, but a Protestant occupant or tenant may not determine that the rates shall be applied to Protestant separate school purposes. Although by Section 66 a corporation

may be assessed in whole or in part for the support of Roman Catholic separate schools, yet no part of its land or business may be rated for the support of Protestant separate schools. Boards of Protestant separate schools do not possess the same borrowing powers as boards of Roman Catholic separate schools, save possibly under Section 45(m), and are not subject to the penalties and prohibitions contained in Sections 94 to 110 of *The Separate Schools Act*. On the other hand, Protestant separate school supporters are not, and never have been, subject to the three-mile limit which was introduced with respect to Roman Catholic separate schools by the Scott Act¹ of 1863.

10. The greatest number of Protestant separate schools to operate in any one year was eight in 1900. As of November, 1949, three Protestant separate schools were operating.² They were located in School Section 1 Grattan, in Renfrew County; in School Section 2 Hagarty, in Renfrew County; and in the Town of Penetanguishene in Simcoe County. The average attendance reported for each Protestant separate school was 18 pupils at 1 Grattan, 14 at 2 Hagarty, and 109 at Penetanguishene. At the 1941 census, the population in each of these municipalities was reported as follows:

Place	Total Population	Roman Catholic Population	
		Number	Percentage
Township of Grattan	1,400	745	53.2
Township of Hagarty	1,498	1,187	79.2
Penetanguishene	4,521	3,102	68.6

11. In each of the three municipalities Roman Catholics constitute a majority of the population. There is a public school located in Public School Section 2 Hagarty, and one in the Town of Penetanguishene,³ but no public school is operated in Public School Section 1 Grattan. There is no Roman Catholic separate school in any of the school sections in the

¹26 Vict., Ch. 5, S.P.C.

²*Schools and Teachers in the Province of Ontario (Part I, Public and Separate Schools)*, November, 1949. These schools have been established for a number of years.

³In the town of Penetanguishene an anomalous school situation exists. According to the 1941 census, 58 per cent of the total population of the town was of French racial origin. The public school has two parts: in one part, French is a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister of Education and the classes are inspected by an inspector of Roman Catholic separate schools from Ottawa; classes in the other part are attended by English-speaking children and are inspected by an inspector of Roman Catholic separate schools from Toronto. Of the total number of teachers in the public school, almost half are members of Roman Catholic religious orders or communities and wear religious habits while teaching their classes. In the same town has been established the Protestant separate school referred to above.

Township of Grattan, or in the town of Penetanguishene, but there is a Roman Catholic separate school in School Section 4 of the Township of Hagarty. In the school sections in which the three Protestant separate schools are located, the Roman Catholics support public schools, whereas the Protestants have established Protestant separate schools. In each case, the Protestant separate school is inspected by the local public school inspector.

12. While regretting the original establishment of separate schools in any form, we must, nevertheless, be realistic and recognize the existing situation and its problems. So long as separate elementary schools are a part of our school system, the rights and privileges guaranteed by the pact of Confederation must not be abrogated. Accordingly, we recommend

- (a) *that statutory provisions continue to be made for the establishment and operation of Protestant separate schools;*
- (b) *that subject to retention of the right to establish such schools, of the right to exemption from the payment of school rates for the support of public schools, and of the right to administer such schools, Protestant separate schools be operated under the statutory provisions and the regulations relating to the public elementary schools of the reorganized educational system;*
- (c) *that Protestant separate schools continue to share in legislative public school grants in like manner as public schools, and continue to have no share in money raised by local municipal assessment for public school purposes.*

CHAPTER XXI

THE TEACHING STAFF OF THE PUBLICLY SUPPORTED SCHOOLS OF ONTARIO

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

1. The history of publicly supported education in Upper Canada shows that it always has been difficult to secure an adequate supply of qualified teachers for elementary schools. No attempt to provide teacher training was made, however, until 1843,¹ when district councils were authorized to establish model schools. This plan failed, as did an attempt introduced a few years later to make provision for model schools under township authority.

2. It was not until 1847 that the first provincial normal school for the training of teachers was established in Upper Canada. Ryerson had been impressed by this type of teacher training school in Prussia, France, Great Britain, Ireland, and the United States, when he made his educational tours in 1845; and he decided to establish a normal school in Upper Canada, partly following the German pattern and partly that of the Normal School of Dublin, which had, he declared, "pre-eminence over all similar establishments in the British Dominions".²

3. Authorized by a school Act in 1846,³ a normal school was opened in Toronto on November 1, 1847. During the first term, the enrolment was restricted to men, but in the second session women also were enrolled. An affiliated model school was opened early in 1848 to provide facilities for practice teaching. Four years later, both the normal and model schools were transferred to premises on Church and Gould Streets, Toronto, which they were to occupy for 89 years.

4. As secondary schools were few in number and their programmes were often inadequate, it was found necessary to emphasize academic work in the new normal school. Professional courses were also given to prepare graduates for work in the classroom. Although the training was of short duration—the term was only five months—the teachers who took it proved

¹7 Vict., Ch. 29, Sec. 57, S.P.C.

²J. G. Hodgins, *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada*, Vol. V, Toronto: Warwick Bros. & Rutter, 1897, p. 245.

³9 Vict., Ch. 20, Sec. 5, S.P.C.

so superior to those without training that the value of the normal school became widely recognized.

5. By 1870, the secondary schools of the province had become more numerous and more efficient, and students entering normal school had had a better academic training. There was, therefore, no longer a need for academic work to occupy first place in the normal school programme, and increased attention could be paid to instruction in methods of teaching. To meet a growing need for trained teachers, two steps were taken: an additional normal school was opened in 1875 at Ottawa; and a system of county model schools was created in 1877. The plans of 1843 for district model schools and of 1850 for township model schools had failed for three reasons: a deficiency of competent instructors; a lack of suitable buildings; and a dearth of capable local superintendents. These difficulties had been sufficiently overcome by 1877 to justify setting apart 50 public schools in various parts of the province as county model schools in which candidates might qualify for Third Class teaching certificates. The principal of each such school was required to hold a First Class teaching certificate, to have had at least three years' successful teaching experience, and to have as assistants at least three teachers holding Second Class teaching certificates. The minimum academic standing for admission to a county model school was the successful completion of a two-year course—later a four-year course—at a high school. The training in these schools was professional, provision for observation and practice teaching having been made. The course, 14 weeks in length, lasted from September to December. Shortly after the model schools were introduced, an applicant for admission to a normal school was required, in addition to other qualifications, to hold a Third Class teaching certificate obtained at a model school and to submit evidence of having taught successfully for at least one year.

6. The county model schools were a popular innovation. Attracted by the accessibility of the model schools and by the brief duration of the courses, many able young people entered the teaching profession. This system of training, however, soon proved to be unsatisfactory. The course was far too short, and the model schools were neither equipped nor staffed to deal adequately with such "new" subjects as nature study, art, manual training, and household science. The graduates of model schools received Third Class teaching certificates, which were valid for three years; but three-quarters of the graduates left the profession either before or shortly after the end of that period. Unfortunately, the difference between salaries paid to holders of Third Class and Second Class certificates was not sufficient to provide an incentive for them to secure the higher certificate from a normal school. The elementary schools of the province became staffed chiefly by teachers with the lowest certificate and the shortest period of training.

7. A considerable improvement occurred in the opening years of this century. The London Normal School was opened in 1900. Four years later

the practice of holding two normal school sessions each year was discontinued in favour of the policy of having one session extending over a full school year. A decision was reached in 1907 to discontinue teacher training in county model schools and to establish normal schools at Hamilton, Peterborough, Stratford, and North Bay. The first three of these were opened in September, 1908, and the fourth in September, 1909. Several model schools, however, continued to operate for some years to meet the needs of certain sections of the province.

8. Provincial model schools for observation and practice-teaching purposes in connection with normal schools were operated in Toronto and Ottawa. For the other normal schools, facilities for practice teaching were provided in classrooms of the local elementary schools. Even at Ottawa and Toronto such classrooms were increasingly used. In 1940 and 1941, respectively, the provincial model schools in these cities were discontinued, and the buildings were taken over for war purposes.

9. Since the initial establishment of normal schools, many changes have taken place in both the courses of instruction and the certification of graduates. For the first eight sessions of the Toronto Normal School (1847 to 1853), graduates received from the Normal School certificates indicating their standing in various subjects, but they had to obtain teaching certificates from county boards. In practice, the county boards issued certificates to normal school graduates without further examination; in consequence, the central authority undertook the granting of certificates in 1853. After 1875, the courses in the normal schools leading to First and Second Class teaching certificates were prescribed. For the First Class teaching certificate, two sessions at normal school were required. This practice continued until 1885, when the course qualifying for the First Class teaching certificate was transferred to schools organized for the training of teachers for secondary schools. These were: the training institutes at Hamilton and Kingston Collegiates (1885 to 1890), and at Guelph and Strathroy (1887 to 1890); the School of Pedagogy, Toronto (1890 to 1897); the Ontario Normal College, Hamilton (1897 to 1907); the Faculties of Education in Toronto and Queen's Universities (1907 to 1920); and the Ontario College of Education (since 1920). The last-named institution continues to offer, as an option, a course qualifying for a First Class Public School certificate although, in 1920, the course leading to a First Class teaching certificate was re-introduced in normal schools.

10. Teachers preparing for positions in elementary schools in which French is a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister of Education originally received training in English-French model schools. These developed from an experiment in the teaching of English to French-speaking pupils which was conducted by the Department of Education at the Plantagenet High School. In 1907 Ottawa was chosen as the location for the first English-French model school. A second was opened in 1910 at

Sturgeon Falls, and in later years others were begun at Vankleek Hill, Sandwich, and Embrun. Graduates received Third Class teaching certificates valid for three years. In 1927 the University of Ottawa Normal School was opened; and as its graduates, holding First and Second Class teaching certificates, increased in number, English-French model schools became less necessary and were discontinued in 1935.

11. A two-year course was introduced in provincial normal schools in the school year 1927-28. It was planned that students would attend for their second year after an interval of not less than two or more than four years of teaching experience. The first group of students returned for their second year of training in 1930. But in 1934-35 the second year of the course was discontinued. In lieu thereof, standing was prescribed in five university subjects, or in special subjects in approved departmental summer school sessions, together with a summer school course in educational methods.

12. In June, 1935, courses leading to Second Class teaching certificates were discontinued in all normal schools except the University of Ottawa Normal School. However, to meet the emergency created by a shortage of teachers during and after the Second World War, summer normal school sessions were provided, which enabled candidates to qualify for Second Class certificates through the successful completion of two sessions, each of six weeks' duration. For admission to these courses, at least prescribed middle school standing was required and, since 1947, at least five months of teaching on Letters of Permission.¹

13. Owing to an increasing shortage of elementary school teachers, entrance requirements for the First Class course in normal schools have been progressively reduced. In 1940, applicants who had standing in eight of the required nine upper school (grade XIII) papers were admitted. Standing in only seven papers was required in 1943, and in 1944 only in five. Students with the minimum requirements were granted Deferred Interim First Class certificates on the successful completion of their course, and were given Interim First Class certificates when standing in the additional upper school papers had been secured. Since 1948, however, an applicant otherwise qualified who has standing in five upper school papers, one of which is English literature or English composition,² has been admitted to the course leading to an Interim First Class certificate, and the completion of additional upper school papers has not been required.

14. For purposes of attendance, the province is divided into seven normal school districts. An applicant is required to attend the normal school in his district unless he submits proof that it will be to his financial advan-

¹A Letter of Permission may be granted by the Department of Education to a local board of trustees which is unable to secure the services of a teacher holding a certificate valid in the elementary schools of Ontario permitting it to employ, on an annual basis, a person not holding such a certificate.

²In the case of the University of Ottawa Normal School, a second prescribed paper is French literature or French composition.

tage to attend a different normal school. Applicants from the whole province are admitted to the University of Ottawa Normal School.

15. Fundamental changes in the content and character of the provincial normal school courses have been made from time to time. When the first school was organized, as we have stated, the course offered was largely academic. Since 1870 increasing emphasis has been placed on methods of teaching. In the present century attention has been increasingly directed to child study, to the interests and needs of individual children, and to methods designed to promote the all-round development of the pupil. More time has also been allotted to practice teaching in both rural and urban classrooms.

16. The teacher-training programme has included the special preparation of teachers for kindergartens and for the primary grades of the elementary school. Since 1885 a special course for training prospective kindergarten teachers has been available in one or two of the normal schools. A course for training kindergarten-primary teachers was organized in 1914. Both these courses were combined and revised in 1934 to form the Primary Specialist course, preparing teachers for work in junior and senior kindergartens and in grades I and II.

Pre-service Training of Teachers for Elementary Schools Today

17. All candidates for admission to normal schools must be British subjects, of good character, and able to pass the required medical examination. Those seeking admission to the First Class course must have an approved degree from a British university, or grade XIII standing in five subjects, one of which must be English literature or English composition. In the case of the University of Ottawa Normal School, one of the five subjects must be English literature or English composition, and a second must be French literature or French composition. Candidates for the Second Class course, which is given, during the regular session, only in the University of Ottawa Normal School, are admitted upon submission of evidence of standing in the courses in grades XI and XII in English, special French, mathematics, and social studies.

18. Candidates who have grade XI and XII standing in English, social studies, mathematics, and science (or special French in the case of French-speaking teachers in training) and who have taught on Letters of Permission for at least five months may be admitted to the first of two normal school summer sessions, each of six weeks' duration. Successful candidates are granted Deferred Interim Second Class certificates valid for one year. If they teach successfully for at least six months, they are eligible to attend the second normal school summer session, leading to an Interim Second Class certificate.

19. Ex-service personnel having at least grade XI and XII standing are granted, for purposes of admission to a normal school only, standing in one grade XIII paper for each six months of active service.

20. At the Toronto Normal School, a Primary Specialist course is offered, to which the holder of a First Class certificate or an approved university degree may be admitted, provided the applicant submits evidence of being "able to sing, read music and play at sight on the piano".¹

21. Candidates for the Interim High School Assistant's Certificate, Type B,² attending the Ontario College of Education may take a supplementary course leading to an Interim First Class Public School teaching certificate. This course is conducted in accordance with the conditions prescribed for the First Class course in normal schools, but requires a subsequent summer session before the candidate may be recommended for the interim certificate.

22. Elementary school teaching certificates issued by the Department of Education to approved applicants are, in the first instance, interim in nature and valid for a specified period. Interim First Class teaching certificates, valid for five years, are granted to candidates who successfully complete the First Class course. Interim Second Class certificates, valid for five years, are granted to candidates who successfully complete the Second Class course given at the University of Ottawa Normal School or the second part of the course given at the normal school summer sessions. Interim First or Second Class teaching certificates granted to successful students of the University of Ottawa Normal School are valid only in those elementary schools in which French is a subject of instruction with the approval of the Minister; and certificates issued to graduates of other normal schools are not valid in these schools. A successful candidate in the Primary Specialist course is granted an Interim Primary School Specialist certificate, valid in junior and senior kindergartens and in grades I and II.

In-service Training of Elementary School Teachers Today

23. Interim teaching certificates are made permanent upon submission of evidence of satisfactory teaching experience, as certified by an inspector or inspectors, and of successful completion of a prescribed number of additional courses, approximately equivalent to a year of further full-time study, which may be taken at one or more of the various summer schools, or, alternatively, through successful completion of a second one-year training course. A teacher holding a Second Class teaching certificate may gain a First Class teaching certificate by submitting evidence of standing in the grade XIII papers required for entrance to the First Class normal school course. A large number of departmental professional summer school courses, each of five weeks' duration, are offered each year. Originally, these were planned with a view to providing training for teachers of special subjects. Since the discontinuance of the two-year normal school course, however, they have also been used for the general training of teachers proceeding to permanent certificates.

¹O. Reg. 195/47.

²See subsequent paragraphs of this chapter.

24. Special certificates for teaching agriculture, art and crafts, auxiliary classes, health and physical training, household science, industrial arts and crafts, music, and primary methods are awarded teachers who successfully complete summer school courses in these departments. As a rule, a one-summer course leads to an elementary certificate, a two-summer course to an intermediate certificate, and a three- or four-summer course to a specialist or supervisor's certificate.

25. A special certificate as Teacher of the Blind or Teacher of the Deaf may be obtained through successful completion of a second-year normal school course offered, respectively, at the School for the Blind, Brantford, and the School for the Deaf, Belleville. A teacher who holds a First Class teaching certificate, who has at least two years' successful teaching experience, and who is recommended by an inspector as being particularly suited for the work may be admitted to one of these courses. Teachers on the staff of either of these schools who have been appointed without previous special training may complete the course while in service, over a period of three years. The programme they take consists of special training relative to the handicap concerned, together with observation and practice teaching in the various grades in the school.

26. In-service training is also provided through two-week summer school refresher courses, largely concerned with special subjects, offered by the Department of Education.

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

27. In earlier days in Ontario, graduates of the provincial normal school holding First Class certificates were eligible to teach in grammar schools, although they had received no training in teaching the subjects of the secondary school course.

28. By the middle of the nineteenth century, grammar schools had grown in number but not in efficiency; and when the foundations of the elementary school system had been firmly laid, Ryerson turned to the reorganization of secondary education. In 1853 a committee was formed to examine and certificate prospective teachers for grammar schools, and a system of inspection was established. In 1858 a model grammar school, recommended by Ryerson five years earlier, was opened on the normal school grounds in Toronto. As the name implies, it was to be a "model" school staffed by outstanding teachers and attended by students selected from a number of municipalities. Masters of other grammar schools were invited to visit the school for extended periods to study its organization and to observe the methods of teaching employed. Efforts were made to develop a systematic course for the training of teachers for grammar schools. In this innovation, Ryerson appears to have anticipated the development of a normal school on the secondary school level. But the programme consisted almost wholly of academic work in grammar school subjects and

observation of lessons taught in the school. Teachers in training were afforded no opportunity to do practice teaching.

29. The attempt initiated by Ryerson was short-lived. The model grammar school was closed in 1863. A further attempt was made twenty years later, when Adam Crooks, the first Minister of Education, proposed that a course of lectures be given in the Department of Education. But opposition was so strong that the scheme was dropped.

30. A more practical type of teacher training was provided in 1885 through the establishment of training institutes in the collegiate institutes at Hamilton and Kingston, and later in those at Guelph and Strathroy. The course, under the principal and members of staff of the collegiate institutes, was fourteen weeks in length and consisted of lectures and demonstrations of special methods in the various subjects and of observation and practice teaching. After only five years of operation, the training institutes were closed—possibly owing to complaints that the regular work of the collegiate institutes was being disrupted—and a Provincial School of Pedagogy was established in Toronto. But, since there was difficulty in securing observation and practice-teaching facilities in the collegiate institutes of the city, the practical training provided at the School of Pedagogy was limited to observation of elementary school classes in the model school and to artificial “teaching” of groups of fellow-students two or three times during the four-month session. The full certificate which it bestowed was withheld until the teacher had taught at least six months and had passed a final practical test.

31. More favourable arrangements were secured in Hamilton, and the training centre was transferred to that city in 1897 and renamed the Ontario Normal College. The new school sought to combine the best features of the courses in educational theory of the School of Pedagogy with the practical experience of the training institutes. Its position was strengthened by the requirement of a full year’s attendance as a condition of certification for teaching in the secondary schools of the province. Candidates for admission were required to have “senior leaving” standing from high school or an Arts degree from a British university. Successful candidates received interim teaching certificates, which might be made permanent on the completion of two years of successful teaching.

32. Although it was generally agreed that the Normal College provided a satisfactory programme for the training of teachers for elementary and secondary schools, a more direct connection with the universities was sought. A Faculty of Education was opened in the University of Toronto in 1907, and in Queen’s University in 1908. In each case, practical work was given in city schools, and a demonstration and practice school, the University of Toronto Schools, was created at Toronto in 1910.

33. There were two main courses in the Faculties of Education. The general course was planned for those entering directly from high schools

and collegiate institutes, who, if successful, secured a certificate valid for teaching in elementary and also in secondary schools. The advanced course was for university graduates and had two divisions: the first led to a certificate valid for teaching purposes in elementary and secondary schools; and the second to specialist standing for teachers of subjects in the secondary field.¹

34. In 1920 the Faculty of Education at Queen's University was terminated and that at the University of Toronto was reorganized as the Ontario College of Education. In this latter institution, the secondary school teachers of the province have since been trained.

Pre-service Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools Today

35. To ensure as far as possible that only suitable candidates are admitted to the Ontario College of Education, various procedures have been adopted:

- (1) As a condition of admission, an applicant must present certificates of age (20 years of age before October 1), of character, of British citizenship, and of graduation from a British university approved by the Minister of Education as regards standard and content of courses; and a statement of physical fitness (including vaccination) certified by a competent medical authority.
- (2) The College obtains from the candidate's university professors a confidential report on the likelihood of his success as a teacher.
- (3) The applicant must be approved by a selection committee named by the Dean, consisting of three members of the College staff and a member of the Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation.

36. More recently it has been the practice for members of the staff of the College of Education to visit the universities of the province to meet interested students and give counsel and information aimed at directing promising young people into the teaching profession and deterring possible misfits.

37. The course for the High School Assistant's Certificate, Type B, is the basic course in the College; all students entering the College are enrolled in it. Students who possess the required qualifications may also take the High School Assistant's Course, Type A, and a supplementary course. In the Type A Course, concentration on chosen subjects is possible: on the theoretical side through bi-weekly seminars; and on the practical side through emphasis upon teaching in special fields. Supplementary courses include physical education, art and crafts, vocal music, public school teaching, commercial subjects, home economics, and industrial arts and crafts. Only one of these may be taken during the College session. Some of the supplementary courses require attendance at one or even two summer school sessions before the candidate may be recommended for a certificate.

¹Special courses were also given—for example, a course for elementary school inspectors, and courses in pedagogy.

38. All teachers in training at the College take courses in the science of education, in school management and law, and in the methodology of a limited number of secondary school subjects. Systematic observation and practice teaching form an important and integral part of the programme. Graduates receive an Interim High School Assistant's Certificate, Type B, and in addition, for those who qualify, an Interim High School Assistant's Certificate, Type A. Those who successfully complete a supplementary course receive a certificate, or a "partial" certificate, covering that subject or group of subjects.

In-service Training of Secondary School Teachers Today

39. A teacher who holds a Type B certificate may obtain a Permanent High School Assistant's Certificate following two years' successful teaching experience in Ontario in a secondary school or in grade IX or X of a public or separate school. A teacher who holds a Type A certificate may obtain a High School Specialist's Certificate following two years' successful teaching experience in Ontario in the subject or subjects covered by the certificate.

40. A teacher may take in summer school sessions a supplementary course not selected during his year at the College. Appropriate certificates, Elementary, Intermediate, and Type A, mark the successful completion of the courses.

41. A candidate who holds a Permanent First or Permanent Second Class certificate, valid for teaching in elementary school, and who has fulfilled the requirements for admission to the High School Assistant's Course, Type B, may obtain an Interim High School Assistant's Certificate, Type B, by taking the final written and practical examinations at the College of Education, or by successfully completing a summer school course provided by the College of Education.

42. Provision has recently been made for refresher courses in particular subjects of the secondary school curriculum. They are of about ten days' duration; the fee is nominal; and no credits are given.

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF PROSPECTIVE VOCATIONAL SCHOOL TEACHERS

43. In 1909, Dr. Seath, then Superintendent of Education, was commissioned to report upon a desirable and practical system of technical education for Ontario. His recommendations were embodied in *The Industrial Education Act* of 1911, following which a remarkable growth took place in the development of technical education.

44. Coinciding with this development, and in a measure responsible for it, was the provision of proper selection and training for teachers of vocational school subjects. As early as 1916, evening classes for the training of teachers were organized on a two-year plan in Toronto, Hamilton, and London. In addition, summer school courses were organized in 1921 in the

Central Technical School, Toronto, for teachers with temporary certificates, for prospective teachers, and for teachers of domestic science who could meet the requirements of trade dressmaking. To obtain an Interim Ordinary Vocational certificate, successful completion of two summer sessions was required.

45. In 1924 it was decided that the only adequate solution to the problem of training teachers for vocational school subjects lay in the establishment of a training college. Hamilton was chosen as the location for the new Ontario Training College for Technical Teachers, which opened in 1925. Part I of the programme, on the related theory of education, required the completion of two summer courses; and Part II, which included observation and practice teaching, was given in the autumn or spring term at the convenience of local boards of trustees and teachers in service. During the winter months, the Training College staff undertook field service work.

46. Commencing in 1932, the Training College conducted winter and summer courses for prospective teachers. In 1933 the College was closed for one year as an economy measure, since there were few applicants and a surplus of trained teachers existed. It was reopened in 1934 and continued in operation until 1941, when, owing to war conditions, it was again closed. Reopening in 1945, it was transferred in the following year to Toronto to become a department of the Ontario College of Education, University of Toronto.

47. Although the Ontario Training College had been established primarily to train teachers of trade subjects for vocational schools, it established in 1930 a course leading to a Vocational Guidance certificate, and in 1934 a course leading to a Vocational School Principal's certificate. Each year it prepared a number of persons to teach manual training. At the same time it developed facilities for improving the training of teachers of general shop.

Training of Teachers of Vocational School Subjects Today

(1) Teachers of Trade Subjects

48. A candidate for admission to the course leading to an Interim Ordinary Vocational certificate in a trade subject must be over 23 and under 32 years of age in the case of women, and over 23 and under 35 in the case of men. He must submit evidence of: secondary school graduation or its equivalent; trade apprenticeship training and several years' journeyman trade experience with approved firms; trade competence (by passing a trade test); good health; and good character.

49. The programme of training, revised in 1945, includes science of education, school law and regulations, English, history of vocational education, technical subjects, methods in teaching and class management, and observation and practice teaching. Upon completion of this programme, a candidate may be recommended for an Interim Ordinary Vocational certificate in his trade subject, which qualifies the holder to teach that sub-

ject in a vocational school in Ontario. Following two years' successful teaching experience, as certified by an inspector, he may make application for a Permanent Ordinary Vocational certificate in his trade subject.

50. A teacher holding a Permanent Ordinary Vocational certificate may obtain an Interim Specialist Vocational certificate in a trade subject through summer courses; this certificate qualifies the holder for appointment as head of a shop department in a vocational school. A candidate for the course must have grade XIII standing in English (composition and literature) and four additional papers, and be certified as above average in teaching ability. The course requires attendance at two summer school sessions and includes a study of economics, industrial history, advanced courses in general principles, and special methods in vocational education and related work.

(2) Teachers of Commercial Subjects

51. Pre-service training of teachers of commercial subjects is given at the Ontario College of Education as a supplementary course offered in connection with the High School Assistant's Course, Type B. The course includes shorthand theory, shorthand practice and transcription, typewriting, bookkeeping, penmanship, and teaching methods. Summer school courses for those who possess a teaching certificate valid in Ontario are given in commercial subjects, and lead to Elementary, Intermediate, and Specialist certificates. Short refresher courses are offered which, while not leading to certificates, familiarize senior teachers with new developments in the field.

(3) Teachers of Home Economics (General)

52. For teachers of the needle trades of sewing and dressmaking, admission requirements and training are similar to those for other vocational trade teachers. Teachers of foods and cookery and of general home economics are at present trained through summer school courses leading to three types of elementary home economics certificates—Elementary C, Elementary B, and Elementary A.

53. The Intermediate Certificate in Home Economics may be obtained, by those who hold the necessary qualifications, through a one-year course at the Ontario College of Education. The Specialist Home Economics Certificate may be obtained, following successful teaching experience, by teachers who have qualified for the High School Assistant's Certificate, Type A, in home economics. Summer school refresher courses are also offered for teachers holding prescribed qualifications.

(4) Teachers of Industrial Arts and Crafts

54. Candidates who hold a teaching certificate valid in the province may be admitted to courses leading to certification for the teaching of industrial arts and crafts. Summer school courses for applicants who have

a High School Assistant's certificate are available, and lead to two types of elementary certificates in industrial arts and crafts—Type A and Type B—and to a specialist certificate. Winter courses, covering part of the elementary Type B course, are held from time to time in different parts of the province. Courses of one or two years' duration, leading to Elementary, Intermediate, and Specialist certificates in Industrial Arts and Crafts, are offered at the Ontario College of Education during the regular school year.

(5) *Vocational School Principal's Certificate*

55. A course of training designed to qualify successful teachers for positions as principals of vocational schools was first instituted, in 1925, at the Ontario Training College for Technical Teachers. The course is given from time to time as required. It is open to any teacher who holds a High School Principal's certificate and who has taught successfully for at least five years in the secondary schools in Ontario.

NUMBER AND DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE

56. During the school year 1947-48, approximately 24,000 teachers were employed in the publicly supported elementary and secondary schools of Ontario. This is almost five times the number employed at the time of Confederation. Increases have occurred in both elementary and secondary school divisions; in the case of the latter more particularly since the end of the First World War, when vocational education was introduced and the period of compulsory attendance extended. Data relating to enrolments and the number of teachers employed appear in Table 1.

57. There are some noteworthy differences in composition and qualifications of staff as between the various types of schools. The relevant data for 1947-48 are given in Table 2. In elementary schools, public and separate, the majority of teachers are women; in secondary schools the majority are men. Only a small proportion of elementary school teachers are university graduates, but approximately 85 per cent of secondary school teachers hold a university degree.

58. Other data from the *Report of the Minister of Education*, 1948, and from other official publications indicate that approximately 39 per cent of the teachers in public elementary schools are in "ordinary rural" schools, and that approximately 33 per cent are in city elementary schools. In Roman Catholic separate schools, the percentages are 25 and 45, respectively. Approximately 22 per cent of all teachers in public elementary schools are men, though the percentage varies in different sections of the province. For example, in the public schools of cities approximately 26 per cent, in the county inspectorates approximately 19 per cent, and in the district inspectorates approximately 24 per cent, are men. In Roman Catholic separate schools, approximately 89 per cent of the teachers are women, about half of whom are members of a religious order or community. Of

TABLE 1
STUDENTS AND TEACHERS IN PUBLICLY SUPPORTED SCHOOLS, 1867-1947

	1867	1887	1907	1917	1927-28	1937-38 ^a	1947-48 ^b
<i>Number of Students</i>							
Public Schools	382,719	462,839	413,510	458,436	533,520	454,509	453,116
Roman Catholic Separate Schools	18,924	30,373	51,502	70,048	101,072	102,505	111,413
Continuation Schools	5,104 ^c	10,079	9,251	6,234
High Schools and Collegiate Institutes	5,696	17,459	30,331	33,024 ^c	55,805	68,700	87,733
Vocational Schools:							
Day	3,674 ^c	24,513	37,731 ^d	32,085 ^d
Evening	14,597 ^c	39,096	31,880	48,351
TOTAL	407,339	510,671	495,343	584,883	764,085	704,576	738,932
<i>Number of Teachers</i>							
Public Schools	4,890	7,594	10,200	12,762	13,958	14,540	15,176
Roman Catholic Separate Schools	210	491	1,034	1,488	2,388	2,953	3,516
Continuation Schools	241	454	504	415
High Schools and Collegiate Institutes	159	398	750	1,051	1,875	2,581	3,665
Vocational Schools:							
Day	132	831	1,599 ^d	1,635 ^d
TOTAL	5,049	7,992	10,950	14,186	19,410 ^e	21,789 ^e	23,955 ^e

^aMay enrolment, 1938.
^bNet enrolment for school year.
^cData for school year 1917-18.
^dIncluding Senior Auxiliary.
^eExcluding duplications of staff in composite secondary schools.

the total number of teachers in continuation schools, approximately 50 per cent are men. On the other hand, men outnumber women by approximately two to one on vocational school staffs. In collegiate institutes considerably more than half the members of staff are men; in high schools the proportion is approximately 50 per cent.

59. As to the average number of years of service of teachers, practically no information is available from any early period. In 1926 the

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS FOR THE SCHOOL YEAR 1947-48

<i>Type of School</i>	<i>Number of Teachers</i>			<i>Percentage University Graduates</i>
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>	
Public Schools	3,289	11,887	15,176	6.2
Roman Catholic Separate Schools	385	3,131	3,516	3.5
Continuation Schools	204	211	415	48.4
Collegiate Institutes	1,322	780	2,102	92.6
High Schools	804	759	1,563	87.0
Day Vocational Schools	1,102	465	1,567	73.1
Senior Auxiliary	35	33	68	25.0

average length of service for all teachers in public schools was approximately 9 years; for men it was 10.3 years and for women 8.8 years. The difference in teaching experience between rural and urban teachers was marked; the average for the former was 4.7 years as compared with 13.3 years for the latter. Fairly detailed information is available from records of the Superannuation Commission as of June 30, 1941, and June 30, 1948. For the 1941 data, the records of the Superannuation Commission included teachers who may not have been actively engaged in teaching but had not withdrawn their contributions from the Fund; for 1948, only those actively engaged in teaching were included. Professional experience for these years is compared in Table 3 below, according to type of school and sex of teacher.

TABLE 3
MEDIAN PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE^a OF TEACHERS
IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF SCHOOLS

Type of School	Median Experience			
	June 30, 1941		June 30, 1948	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Elementary				
Cities	15.1	16.7	17.7	16.7
Large Suburban and Semi-urban	14.1	12.7	14.1	12.7
Towns and Villages	10.2	12.1	14.2	12.7
Ordinary Rural	6.5	6.4	7.7	6.3
TOTAL ELEMENTARY	9.8		11.5	
Secondary				
Collegiate Institutes and Vocational Schools	12.7	13.0	16.8	16.5
High Schools	8.7	9.1	11.7	10.3
Continuation Schools	9.9	7.3	13.1	12.9
TOTAL SECONDARY	11.6		14.9	
ALL SCHOOLS	10.2		12.2	

^aMedian Experience: One-half the teachers in the group have experience less than or equal to the median, and the remaining half have experience greater than or equal to the median.

60. The above figures do not indicate, except indirectly and very inaccurately, the number of years served by the average teacher in an elementary or secondary school. The only type of conclusion than can be drawn is, for example, that in 1941 one-half of all teachers who had not withdrawn their contributions from the Superannuation Fund had teaching experience of 10.2 years or less, whereas in 1948 one-half of those actively engaged in teaching had teaching experience of 12.2 years or less. While there was an increase in median length of experience over the

period, it was restricted to certain groups. For secondary schools, the increase was most marked in collegiate institutes and vocational schools. For elementary schools, the slight increase was mainly restricted to male teachers; in towns and villages and in ordinary rural schools, the median experience for women in 1948 was almost the same as in 1941.

61. These and other related data reveal a striking diversity in professional qualifications, length of experience, and permanence of tenure on the part of teachers in both elementary and secondary schools. Ontario girls and boys following the same prescribed courses of study are taught by men and women whose academic and professional preparation and length of teaching experience vary widely.

62. In Table 4 we present data relating to experience and qualification of teachers in secondary schools, according to size of school. For simplicity of comparison, the data are recorded in the table as percentages. The number of teachers in two- or three-teacher secondary schools, given under 1 (a), means that 42 per cent of all teachers in secondary schools of this size were appointed to the position in 1947. In the same schools, 11 per cent of the teachers had had 5 or more years of experience in the positions they then held.

63. As is evident from lines 1 (a) and 1 (d) of Table 4, the percentage of newly appointed teachers varies inversely with the size of secondary school, and the proportion of teachers with 5 or more years of experience in the school varies directly with the size of the school. In lines 2 (a),

TABLE 4
COMPARISON OF EXPERIENCE AND QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS IN
SECONDARY SCHOOLS, BY SIZE OF SCHOOL, NOVEMBER, 1947^a
(Reduced to Percentage Basis)

<i>Classification</i>	<i>Size of Secondary School</i>			
	<i>2 or 3 Teachers</i>	<i>4, 5 or 6 Teachers</i>	<i>7 to 12 Teachers</i>	<i>Over 12^b Teachers</i>
1. Experience in Present Position				
(a) Newly-appointed	42	33	27	13
(b) One year	19	18	19	12
(c) More than one but less than five years	28	26	26	19
(d) Five or more years	11	23	28	56
2. Qualifications				
(a) On permit	22	6	2	1
(b) University graduates	51	89	93	88
(c) Specialist Certificate	17	39	60	86

^aThe data relate to the experience and qualifications reported as of November, 1947, in the departmental publication "Staffs of Collegiate Institutes, High Schools, Continuation Schools, Vocational Schools and Normal Schools."

^bOnly collegiate institutes and combined academic and vocational schools are included in this group.

(b), and (c), certain aspects of the qualifications of these teachers are reported. Here the trend is evident. The percentage of teachers "on permit" decreases as the size of the school increases, while the percentage of teachers who hold a university degree or a specialist teaching certificate increases with the size of the school.

64. It is evident that many members of the staff of an average small secondary school are inexperienced or newly appointed teachers, who are likely to be unacquainted with the particular problems of the school and community. Nor have teachers in these schools, on the average, the qualifications of those in the larger schools. Although there are exceptions, teachers in the larger schools have a fuller training, both professional and academic, and a much longer tenure in their positions. This is not to suggest that the small secondary school does not render a useful service in the cause of secondary education, or that it does not provide the best type of secondary education possible under the circumstances. Nevertheless, the data indicate that the small secondary school is at a disadvantage in the qualifications of its staff.

SUPPLY OF TEACHERS

(1) *Elementary Schools*¹

65. The number of teachers required in any year is, of course, primarily determined by school enrolment, a survey of which, from the time of Confederation to the present, we have given in an earlier section. Table 5 provides data, for each year from 1939-40 to 1947-48, relating to the enrolment of pupils and the number of teachers in elementary schools. From 1939-40 to 1941-42, the enrolment in elementary schools dropped from 543,000 to 525,000. Then the trend was reversed, and since that time enrolment has increased steadily. The enrolment reported for September, 1949, was 595,400 pupils, an increase of nearly 30,000 over the previous figure. Concurrently, the number of teachers decreased from 17,527 in 1939-40 to 17,258 in 1942-43, and since that date has grown to 18,692 for 1947-48. The number employed as of November, 1949, was 20,462—nearly 2,000 greater than in 1947-48.

66. Table 6 gives the distribution of certificates held by elementary school teachers in the same period. It shows a steady increase in the number of those holding a First Class teaching certificate, a doubling in the number of those holding special certificates, and a fairly steady decrease, more particularly in recent years, in the number of those holding Second Class or lower certificates.

67. Table 7 gives the number of teachers leaving the profession and the number of Letters of Permission issued by the Department of Educa-

¹For a survey of the supply of teachers for elementary schools, 1908 to 1942, see *Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1941*, pp. 124 and 125.

TABLE 5
ENROLMENT AND NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS,
1939-40 to 1947-48

<i>Year</i>	<i>Enrolment^a</i>	<i>Number of Teachers</i>
1939-40	543,323	17,527
1940-41	533,914	17,347
1941-42	525,441	17,342
1942-43	527,517	17,258
1943-44	539,363	17,277
1944-45	538,710	17,685
1945-46	545,007	17,970
1946-47	550,210	18,313
1947-48	564,529	18,692

^aCommencing with 1943-44, net enrolment has been reported instead of May enrolment.

tion for each of the years 1939-40 to 1948-49. The number leaving the profession has been considerable throughout the period; in recent years it has been between 1,500 and 1,600 per year. The number of Letters of Permission issued by the Department of Education increased until 1946-47, but dropped slightly thereafter.

68. That the number of Letters of Permission issued increased for a period of years and then remained fairly constant indicates that the output of the teacher training institutions has been too low to meet the demand. A comparison of the data of Table 8 with those of Table 7 shows that

TABLE 6
CERTIFICATES OF TEACHERS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, 1939-40 TO NOVEMBER, 1949

<i>Year</i>	<i>Certificates</i>			
	<i>First Class</i>	<i>Special^a</i>	<i>Second Class or Lower^b</i>	<i>Total</i>
1939-40	9,473	956	7,098	17,527
1940-41	9,997	1,070	6,280	17,347
1941-42	10,131	960	6,251	17,342
1942-43	9,961	968	6,272	17,258
1943-44	10,004	1,030	6,243	17,277
1944-45	10,163	1,156	6,366	17,685
1945-46	10,521	1,097	6,352	17,970
1946-47	10,790	1,225	6,298	18,313
1947-48	11,604	1,292	5,796	18,692
November, 1948 ^c	12,246	1,763	5,615	19,624
November, 1949 ^c	13,149	1,922	5,391	20,462

^aIncludes Manual Training, Household Science, Auxiliary, Kindergarten, Art, Music, Physical Culture, but excludes itinerant music teachers.

^bIncludes Third Class, District, Permanent Ungraded, and Temporary.

^cAs reported in *Schools and Teachers in the Province of Ontario*; a number of teachers of music are engaged in the schools of more than one inspectorate, and thus such teachers may be listed in the reports of two or more inspectors.

TABLE 7
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS: NUMBER OF TEACHERS LEAVING
PROFESSION AND NUMBER OF LETTERS OF PERMISSION
ISSUED, 1939-40 TO APRIL, 1950

<i>Year</i>	<i>Leaving Profession</i>	<i>Letters of Permission</i>
1939-40	1,662	118
1940-41	1,747	191
1941-42	1,855	604
1942-43	1,409	568
1943-44	1,300	725
1944-45	1,301	572
1945-46	1,584	912
1946-47	1,587	1,211
1947-48	1,483	1,137
1948-49	Data not available	1,100
April, 1950	Data not available	1,069 ^a

^aInformation secured from the Department of Education.

each year the number of prospective teachers trained has been less than the number leaving the profession.

69. The supply of teachers for elementary schools has not improved despite the measures undertaken, including a lowering of entrance qualifications and special normal school summer sessions. Since relatively few schools have been closed and the total enrolment has continued to increase (see Table 5), it is evident that another source of teacher supply must have been tapped. It is known that a large number of teachers from

TABLE 8
ATTENDANCE AT NORMAL SCHOOLS AND NUMBER OF CERTIFICATES
ISSUED TO NEWLY QUALIFIED TEACHERS

<i>Attendance at Normal Schools</i>			<i>Certificates Issued to Newly Qualifying Teachers</i>			
<i>Year</i>	<i>Regular Course</i>	<i>Summer Sessions</i>	<i>Normal School Regular Session</i>	<i>Ontario College of Education (Elementary)</i>	<i>Deferred First and Second Class (After One Summer Session)</i>	<i>Interim Certificates (After Two Summer Sessions)</i>
1939-40	1,240		1,905	19		
1940-41	1,131		1,005	13		
1941-42	1,112		1,035	14		
1942-43	944		867	6		
1943-44	822	625	831	17	572	
1944-45	765	479	708	8		464 ^a
1945-46	1,019		917	19		
1946-47	1,188	324	1,083		297	
1947-48	1,246	595	1,133	2	221	257 ^a
1948-49	1,251	482	1,145	7	228	217 ^a

^aThese students hold a Deferred Interim certificate, secured following completion of one normal school summer session.

other provinces have entered the teaching profession in Ontario, and that many married women have re-entered the profession. Of all women teaching in elementary schools as of November, 1949, 30 per cent were married.

70. The number of those teaching on Letters of Permission and the proportion of married women teachers vary from one section of the province to another. Table 9 gives information gathered from "Schools and Teachers in the Province of Ontario, Part I, Public and Separate Schools", as of November, 1949. It gives, under different types of inspectorate, the percentage of teachers on Letters of Permission and the percentage of women teachers who are married. The two percentages should not be added, however, since some married women are teaching on Letters of Permission. The data make it clear that in many sections of the province, particularly in rural areas, the teaching staff of elementary schools is largely composed of married women and of persons who have Letters of Permission issued by the Department of Education. This means that if

TABLE 9
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS
TEMPORARY CERTIFICATES AND MARRIED WOMEN
(November, 1949)

Classification	Number and Type of Inspectorates			
	Public Schools in Cities ^a	Public Schools in Counties ^b	Public Schools in Districts ^c	Roman Catholic Separate Schools ^d
1. Percentage of total number of teachers on Letters of Permission:				
Less than 1	26	15		1
1 to 4	3	26	2	10
5 to 9		21	3	10
10 to 14		8	5	1
15 to 19		3	3	3
20 or more		6	9	1
AVERAGE PERCENTAGE	0.3	5.8	14.7	6.4
2. Percentage of total number of women teachers who are married:				
0 - 9	7	3		14
10 - 19	14	4		8
20 - 29	6	6	3	4
30 - 39	2	18	5	
40 - 49		26	4	
50 - 59		18	6	
60 - 69		3	2	
70 or more		1	2	
AVERAGE PERCENTAGE	13.2	41.9	44.0	10.9

^aFor 29 cities.

^bFor 79 inspectorates, excluding cities.

^cFor 22 inspectorates, excluding cities.

^dFor 26 inspectorates, including cities.

married women teachers were to leave the profession and if Letters of Permission were no longer issued, in many sections of the province at least half the teaching positions in elementary schools would immediately fall vacant.

(2) *Secondary Schools*

71. In Table 10 are given, for each year of the period 1939-40 to 1947-48, the enrolment of students and number of teachers in the publicly supported secondary schools of the province. In collegiate institutes, high schools, and continuation schools, enrolment dropped to 69,000 in 1942-43, then increased to approximately 94,000 in 1946-47 and 1947-48. The number of teachers employed decreased to 3,256 in 1942-43, and then increased to over 4,000 for the school year 1947-48. In vocational and senior auxiliary schools, enrolment sank to 25,000 in 1942-43, with a subsequent increase to 33,600 in 1946-47. The number of teachers employed in these schools decreased to 1,560 in 1945-46, but has remained relatively constant since that time.

TABLE 10
ENROLMENT OF STUDENTS AND NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS,
1939-40 TO 1947-48

<i>Year</i>	<i>Collegiate Institutes, High Schools and Continuation Schools</i>		<i>Vocational and Senior Auxiliary Schools</i>	
	<i>Enrolment</i>	<i>Number of Teachers</i>	<i>Enrolment</i>	<i>Number of Teachers</i>
1939-40	83,150	3,271	37,900	1,761
1940-41	76,632	3,442	33,082	1,751
1941-42	72,568	3,355	29,894	1,708
1942-43	69,091	3,256	25,319	1,677
1943-44	74,512	3,261	31,433	1,640
1944-45	82,863	3,262	29,453	1,681
1945-46	89,521	3,609	31,923	1,560
1946-47	94,343	3,853	33,656	1,638
1947-48	93,967	4,080	32,085	1,635

72. Table 11 shows the academic and professional qualifications of teachers in secondary schools during the same period. In collegiate institutes and high schools the percentage of teachers who are university graduates has decreased steadily since 1939-40. This decrease has been more marked in continuation schools, where, in 1947-48, less than 50 per cent of the teachers held a university degree. In vocational and senior auxiliary schools the percentage has remained relatively constant. The last three columns of the table show the percentage of teachers whose professional qualifications included specialist standing. In all types of secondary schools this percentage has steadily and markedly decreased during the period under review: for collegiate institutes and high schools, it has diminished from 80 to 63; for continuation schools, from 36 to less than 17; and for

TABLE 11

ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS,
1939-40 TO 1947-48

Year	ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS					
	Percentage Graduates			Percentage Specialists		
	Collegiate Institutes and High Schools	Continuation Schools	Vocational and Senior Auxiliary	Collegiate Institutes and High Schools	Continuation Schools	Vocational and Senior Auxiliary
1939-40	93.7	59.4	71.5	80.1	35.7	65.0
1940-41	92.5	60.5	72.4	78.2	35.8	65.4
1941-42	92.9	63.8	75.2	77.0	32.7	66.2
1942-43	92.1	63.5	72.4	73.6	26.4	63.4
1943-44	91.5	61.0	72.8	71.5	20.9	62.1
1944-45	91.6	56.9	73.9	68.8	19.8	61.1
1945-46	91.5	56.3	71.5	68.5	20.6	59.4
1946-47	91.7	54.8	71.9	67.2	17.0	58.4
1947-48	90.2	48.4	71.1	62.8	16.9	57.1

vocational and senior auxiliary schools, from 66 to 57. Although the shortage of teachers for secondary schools may not be serious, the academic and professional qualifications of the teachers in these schools are not at present as high as they were in 1939.

73. The number of secondary school teachers leaving the profession each year during the period 1942-43 to 1947-48 is given in Table 12.

TABLE 12

NUMBER OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS
LEAVING THE PROFESSION,
1942-43 TO 1947-48

Year	Number Leaving Profession
1942-43	313
1943-44	214
1944-45	230
1945-46	359
1946-47	324
1947-48	213

74. The *Report of the Minister of Education*, 1948, included the number of teachers who, although they did not hold the prescribed teaching certificates, had been granted permission to teach in academic secondary schools. The relevant figures are given in Table 13.

75. Enrolment in teacher training courses—academic, librarian, and vocational—for the period 1939-40 to 1948-49 is given in Table 14. Enrolment in the “academic” courses leading to qualifications to teach in academic secondary schools decreased greatly during the years of the Second

TABLE 13
NUMBER AND PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN ACADEMIC
SECONDARY SCHOOLS ON LETTERS OF PERMISSION,
1944-45 TO 1947-48

<i>Professional Training</i>	1944-45	1945-46	1946-47	1947-48
Ontario Professional Training	99	109	109	90
Professional Training in Other Provinces	5	8	37	22
No Professional Training	6	13	14	19
TOTAL	110	130	160	131

World War, particularly between 1942 and 1945, but has increased substantially since then. During the years when enrolment in the regular courses was low, two College of Education summer sessions were given. These were attended by 81 and 77 students, respectively. Enrolment in “vocational” courses leading to qualifications to teach in vocational schools and classes is normally small and has not increased in recent years.

76. The summer courses offered by the Department of Education are designed to enable teachers in service to acquire new skills and to become acquainted with the latest developments in educational content and method. From 1941 to 1944 inclusive, the general programme was not offered. During the years 1945 to 1948, the enrolment in special courses relating directly to the supply of teachers for secondary schools was as appears in Table 15. In general, these courses are attended by teachers in order to secure a higher certificate or, in the case of elementary school

TABLE 14
SECONDARY SCHOOLS: ATTENDANCE AT TEACHER-TRAINING COURSES,
1939-40 TO 1948-49

<i>Year</i>	ACADEMIC			VOCATIONAL		
	<i>Regular Course</i>	<i>Summer Sessions</i>	<i>School Librarian Course</i>	<i>Vocational (Regular Course)</i>	<i>Industrial Arts and Crafts (Regular Course)</i>	<i>Home Economics (Regular Course)</i>
1939-40	320	81 77	51	16	23 ^a	19
1940-41	251		37	15	9 ^a	9
1941-42	210		32			8
1942-43	135		31			5
1943-44	131		20			4
1944-45	141		23	19	48 ^a	16
1945-46	284		43	19	87	5
1946-47	268		51	25	41	14
1947-48	265		45	21	42	14
1948-49	378		50	17	35	26

^aManual Training Intermediate.

TABLE 15
ENROLMENT IN CERTAIN DEPARTMENTAL SUMMER COURSES, 1945 TO 1948

<i>Year</i>	<i>Auxiliary Education</i>	<i>Commercial Subjects</i>	<i>High School Assistant's Type B</i>	<i>Home Economics</i>	<i>Industrial Arts and Crafts</i>	<i>School Librarian</i>
1945	127	99	80	56	133	
1946	101	127	85	118	172	22
1947	147	111	120	86	153	22
1948	122	116	110	119	127	12

teachers, in order that they may qualify for teaching positions in secondary schools.

77. The increased enrolment in the regular courses of the Ontario College of Education in 1948-49 and again in 1949-50 indicates that in the near future the supply of teachers for secondary schools will be adequate under the present organization of the educational system. The number of prospective teachers of specialized courses, more particularly for those in vocational schools, is still insufficient.

CHAPTER XXII

RECOMMENDATIONS WITH RESPECT TO THE PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

1. The teacher is the keystone of the educational arch: in the final analysis, the fulfilment of educational aims rests with him. Increasingly, the public has come to realize the vital role of teachers in the development of children and the building of citizens. The briefs presented to us have shown a deep interest in, and concern with, the selection and training of teachers as the most effective means of ensuring the best possible education for the children of this province.

2. In view of the teacher's functions and importance, we feel that his qualities should include a high standard of physical and mental health, superior intelligence, a deep and abiding religious faith, a mature and stable personality, and a willingness and ability to mingle and co-operate with his fellows. Thus, he may approach his work in a spirit of confidence, exert a beneficent influence throughout the school, his profession, and the community, and establish harmonious relations with pupils, school officials, and parents. In addition, he should possess a general culture in order to assess the capabilities of his pupils, to understand their possibilities of development, and to select the proper means of stimulating their growth. He should have an adequate knowledge of the language of instruction in its written and spoken forms, both as a vehicle of communication and as a medium for thinking. He should be sufficiently familiar with the physical and social sciences and mathematics to understand the existence of natural and moral law and the value and method of objective thinking. He should know enough of aesthetics to appreciate beauty and to be able to touch his pupils with his spirit. Teachers at all stages of the educational system should be mature persons, possessing backgrounds rich academically and professionally.

3. Through professional training, experience, and study, the teacher should come to realize the general aims of education, particularly as related to the special field in which he works. The growth of any comprehensive philosophy of education is a slow process, the outcome of long years of experience. Growth may be stimulated by books and lectures, but a philosophy cannot be acquired from them ready-made. The teacher

should be familiar with educational psychology and be able to apply it in the classroom. He should be aware of the characteristic stages of intellectual, physical, emotional, and volitional development; of ways and means of selecting suitable material and suitable situations to stimulate growth during each of these stages; of methods of accommodating instruction to the differences among pupils; of ways of arousing and directing the urges that prompt children to action; of the requirements of mental health; and of methods of detecting variants. From a study of methodology, he should learn how habits and skills are established through practice, how information is made available through mental associations, how laws and principles are conceived and applied, and how attitudes are formed. He should be able to assess subject matter in accordance with the mental age of the pupil and in accordance with the method of teaching to be employed.

4. A teacher who possesses in any considerable degree the very high qualifications enumerated will be ready to assume responsibility and should be free to exercise initiative. He may safely be entrusted with the education of children.

TEACHER TRAINING IN OTHER PROVINCES AND COUNTRIES

5. The realization that schools for the professional preparation of teachers are the strategic centres of the educational system led us to make a study of the programmes and methods followed in the education of teachers in other countries. Members of the Commission visited such institutions in the western provinces of Canada, in England, and in many states of the eastern and western United States. The information secured, together with other evidence submitted to us, was subjected to careful scrutiny, and a particular examination was made of the reports of committees and commissions appointed to study teacher training in England, the United States, and Canada.

Canada

6. The general pattern of teacher training in Canada during past years has been as follows: for teachers for elementary schools, a one-year course in a normal school following four or five years of secondary school work; for teachers for secondary schools, a one-year course in the educational department of a university following a three- or four-year university course leading to a Bachelor's degree; and for teachers of vocational subjects, training in a special school.

7. While there have been exceptions to the general pattern, the plan remained relatively unchanged until about 1945. Changes recently made are of two types—temporary measures to offset a shortage of teachers, and basic changes in teacher-training programmes.

8. Temporary measures include: reduced requirements for entrance to training schools; special summer courses, academic and professional, for students from high school or for teachers without full qualifications; accelerated courses in training institutions; and the release of teachers in training for employment before the completion of their course. Such improvisations have been necessary to meet the teacher shortage, but they stand in sharp contrast to the considered opinion of Canadian educators that "a period of teacher-training longer than one year is a highly desirable objective".¹ Authorities hope, however, that standards temporarily lowered may be restored, and even raised, in the near future.

9. Prominent among more basic changes is the association of teacher training with the universities in Alberta and Saskatchewan. Since the fall of 1946, all teacher training in Alberta has been made the responsibility of the University of Alberta. The normal schools at Edmonton and Calgary have become part of the Faculty of Education. Two years of the Bachelor of Education programme are offered at Calgary. Four years of the programme, and also graduate courses, are offered at Edmonton. Provision is made for a variety of courses, all leading to the B.Ed. degree, including those qualifying for Elementary and Intermediate, Intermediate, and High School teaching certificates. Specialization is possible in the following fields: industrial arts; home economics; agriculture; commerce; physical education; fine arts; and special academic subjects. During the period of teacher shortage, an interim teaching certificate was granted after one year of training; this was, however, credited towards the B.Ed. degree. It is proposed to require two years of training for basic certification at the elementary school level.²

10. In Saskatchewan, normal schools operate independently of, but in close association with, the University of Saskatchewan. In co-operation with the College of Education, a new four-year course for teachers has been set up on an optional basis. Under this plan, the year of normal school training is accepted as the equivalent of the first year of the four-year course. The work of the second, third, and fourth years is taken in the College of Education. At the end of the second year, trainees receive an Interim Superior Teaching Certificate; at the end of the fourth year, they receive a Bachelor of Education degree and a High School or Elementary School Specialist Certificate, according to the option selected. Options include languages, social studies, mathematics, science, music, art, dramatics, agriculture, home economics, industrial arts, and physical education.³

¹*Proceedings of the Twenty-second Convention of the Canada and Newfoundland Education Association*, Toronto, 1944, p. 32.

²The Canadian Education Association, "Trends in Canadian Education, 1948", *Canadian Education*, III, No. 4, (September, 1948), p. 75.

³*Annual Report of the Department of Education of the Province of Saskatchewan, 1945-46*, Regina: King's Printer, 1947, p. 23.

11. In the Maritime Provinces, the term "college" is used to designate the teacher-training institutions. Prince Edward Island educates its teachers at Charlottetown in the Prince of Wales College and Normal School, and Nova Scotia conducts a provincial normal college at Truro. In New Brunswick, the normal school at Fredericton became the Teachers' College, with co-ordinated model school departments, in 1947.¹

12. Steps have been taken in Saskatchewan to select desirable students, and to eliminate those less promising, early in the training year. The selection phase of a revised teacher-training programme, introduced in that province in the autumn of 1945, has been officially detailed:

In addition to grade twelve standing an applicant to be admitted must have received sixty per cent. on that portion of the departmental grade twelve examination in English which is devoted to a test of language usage. The applicant is required to have the principal of the last high school attended complete a questionnaire for the Department which will give a picture of his personality traits and his interests while at school. A fairly extensive medical report, the extent and form of which has the approval of the provincial Department of Health, must be submitted by the examining physician. In addition, the first two weeks of the first term is a period of probation during which applicants are administered tests of intelligence and of ability in the basic skills and are interviewed by the principal and the members of his staff . . .²

Changes in the teacher-training programme in Saskatchewan include the addition of courses in rural sociology and in human growth and development, the latter embracing educational psychology, child psychology, mental hygiene, and guidance.

13. The trend in most provinces has been toward more continuous experience in practice teaching. In Manitoba, student-teachers are sent out in relays and are accommodated in the Winnipeg schools for a period of three weeks. Vancouver Normal School arranges two continuous periods, each of four consecutive weeks, and the Victoria Normal School requires approximately two months of observation and practice teaching in continuous two- and three-week periods. Saskatchewan provides for five weeks of practice teaching in rural schools and two in city schools, the normal schools operating a "block" system whereby one-third of the student-teachers are in the practice schools at a time.

14. Two plans have been adopted for providing practice teaching in classrooms where a number of grades are represented, as in the ordinary rural school: student-teachers may be sent to practice in rural schools; or multiple-grade classrooms may be set up in the municipality where the training school is located. New Brunswick reported in 1946 that, since it was considered that supervised practice and observation in actual rural-

¹*Annual Report of the Department of Education of the Province of New Brunswick for the School Year Ended June 30th, 1947*, Fredericton, N.B., 1948, p. 70.

²*Annual Report of the Department of Education of the Province of Saskatchewan 1944-45*, Regina: King's Printer, p. 46.

school situations would be a decided advance over past practice, the Minister had directed that effort be made to associate rural schools in the vicinity of Fredericton with the normal school for purposes of controlled observation and practice. Saskatchewan has provided a group of rural practice schools with specially selected teachers, and has also set up a number of multiple-grade city classrooms with specially selected teachers for practice work in its normal-school centres, Saskatoon and Moose Jaw. In British Columbia, the normal school at Vancouver has a two-room model school, representing two rural classrooms, in operation on its own grounds. In one classroom, there are some 25 pupils of all grades from I to VI; in the other, the same number of pupils from grades I to VIII.

15. In Quebec, both the School for Teachers at Macdonald College, Ste. Anne de Bellevue, in which teachers are trained for the Protestant schools, and the normal schools for training teachers for the Roman Catholic schools are residential. In 1946 the normal school in Winnipeg also became residential when it was moved to the Tuxedo site formerly occupied by the School for the Deaf.

16. The in-service training of teachers across Canada includes several noteworthy features: self-improvement through teachers' grade meetings and conferences; periodic meetings of educational associations; the influence of supervisors and inspectors; summer courses for academic and professional advancement; and departmental magazines for the information and guidance of teachers. Of the last-named, mention might be made of *British Columbia Schools*, *Journal of Education* (Nova Scotia), *The Educational Record* and *L'Enseignement Primaire* (Quebec), and the *Manitoba School Journal*.

17. Post-graduate degrees in education are offered at the universities of McGill, Toronto, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia. Doctorate degrees may be obtained at the University of Manitoba and at the University of Toronto; elsewhere, studies are not pursued beyond the level required for the Master's degree. French-language courses for degrees in pedagogy are available at two "instituts pédagogiques" (one for men and one for women) affiliated with the University of Montreal.

18. The development of vocational education has produced a demand in all provinces for specially trained teachers. Facilities for training such teachers are limited. Correspondence courses provide the only facilities available in Nova Scotia, for instance, and these are limited in scope and content. Vocational teachers in the Maritime Provinces have to attend schools or colleges outside their province. New Brunswick gave 22 vocational teachers financial assistance to enable them to attend training schools in 1947, and 16 of them went outside the province for their courses. Two teacher-training classes were organized in New Brunswick, however, during the same year. One was for training home economics teachers, the other for training shop teachers. In Quebec, a special normal school has recently

been established at Outremont for training the teaching staffs of domestic science schools in the Roman Catholic schools system. In other provinces, courses in agriculture, home economics, and industrial arts may be taken in connection with the courses for teachers at universities. A number of candidates have been recruited across the Dominion from veterans taking rehabilitation training and trained for teaching vocational classes.

England

19. Two types of institution are responsible for the education of the majority of teachers in England—the Training College and the University Training Department. To the training colleges, some 70 in number, are admitted graduates of secondary schools who are at least 18 years of age, who are in satisfactory health, and who have passed a school certificate examination or a higher school certificate examination. To the 22 university training departments are admitted students who have spent at least three years in obtaining a university degree.

20. The training college provides a two-year course, and its graduates find employment in the elementary schools. The university training department gives a one-year course, and approximately 40 per cent of its graduates obtain posts in secondary schools. The other 60 per cent teach in elementary schools, mainly in the senior schools.

21. An additional, though temporary, type of institution for the education of teachers was introduced at the close of the Second World War. Forty-seven Emergency Training Colleges, offering courses extending over a period of one full calendar year, were organized to train candidates selected from the armed forces. The great majority of those selected were chosen less on a basis of academic attainment than on a basis of personality. Though it was found necessary to devote a considerable portion of the year's programme to removing academic deficiencies, recent reports are to the effect that, because of their maturity, many of the graduates are making very successful teachers. Owing to a greatly increased enrolment in the primary grades of the elementary schools and the consequent pressing need for more women teachers, the emergency training college courses are being discontinued, and the buildings are being used for regular training colleges.

22. Facilities for the professional training of technical teachers have been limited, but the Ministry of Education has conducted a number of short courses for this group, as have some local education authorities. The City and Guilds of London Institute has played a part in such training, awarding teachers certificates in dressmaking, needlework, tailoring, cooking, upholstery, millinery, and handicrafts. These certificates may be awarded, after examination, to those who have taken approved part-time courses of study and practice teaching, sometimes extending over two or three years, at selected technical colleges. There are 11 training colleges

offering the three-year course in domestic subjects, which is the minimum for the combined qualification of certificated teacher and teacher of domestic subjects.

23. In the courses offered in both the training colleges and the university training departments, the emphasis is upon professional subjects. "The essential requirements of all teachers", states the McNair Report,¹ "are (a) some mastery of their own language and the power of clear speech; (b) a grounding in the fundamental principles of education; and (c) competence in the art of teaching. Training in these essentials must be provided for all students who intend to be teachers, whether they be graduates or non-graduates. They are 'professional subjects'." Emphasis upon such subjects is particularly natural in the case of the university training departments, since their students have already received a general and cultural preparation in the courses leading to their degrees. The student in the two-year course has greater need of general training, and an effort is made to supply some academic background for the subjects which are later to be taught. The result is a heavily laden course, which may account for the comment: "Many students in training colleges do not mature by living; they survive by hurrying."²

United States

24. Four types of institutions play a part in the training of teachers in the United States—normal schools, teachers colleges, departments of education, and schools or colleges of education.

25. The normal school established itself as the accepted institution of teacher education in the nineteenth century. Its function was to train teachers for the elementary school, and, in early years, its students had little more than an elementary school education themselves. Later, at least two years of high school was demanded of entrants, and the normal school course was increased from one to two years. By 1920, this plan of teacher training was regarded as so inadequate that teachers colleges gradually replaced normal schools. There were more than 300 normal schools in 1900, but very few are in operation today.

26. The surviving normal schools are of different types—state, county, municipal, or high-school normal—and vary in their standards of entrance and in the training they offer. The course provided is usually less than four years: in Michigan, for example, the county normal school offers a one-year course to students who have completed grade XI of the senior high school. The students are given a grounding in the academic subjects of the elementary grades, some background of teaching theory and child study, and a few weeks of practice teaching. Graduates receive a County Limited

¹*Teachers and Youth Leaders*, Report of the Committee appointed by the President of the Board of Education to consider the Supply, Recruitment and Training of Teachers and Youth Leaders, London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1944, p. 66.

²*Ibid.*, p. 65.

Certificate, valid for two years and limited to the county where they are trained. Renewal for two years may be granted on condition that improvement in qualifications is secured through attendance at courses in summer sessions of a college of education.

27. The teachers college is usually a degree-granting institution, requiring from its entrants four years of high school work, offering a training course of four years' duration, and equipping teachers for positions in either elementary or secondary schools. The four-year course is designed to offer a broad general education and to enable students to master subject matter and gain an understanding of educational principles and practices. "Since the State believes", reads a statement in a bulletin of the State Teachers College, Buffalo, "that an elementary teacher, to be successful, must be an educated person who has attained professional perspective as well as technical knowledge and practice, it has provided a curriculum which is approximately three-fourths general education and one-fourth professional education."¹ All students at all colleges do not take the full course leading to the Bachelor's degree. In Michigan, for example, a student may take a two-year course to secure the State Elementary Limited Certificate, valid for three years and renewable for two years subject to improvement in qualifications secured through summer school courses. But he may take a four-year course leading to the Bachelor's degree and the State Elementary Provisional Certificate. The latter is valid for five years for teaching in elementary or junior high schools; a permanent certificate is granted after three years of successful teaching.

28. The departments of education are divisions of liberal arts colleges which offer courses in teacher education. In some universities—at Chicago, for example—the work in education is organized as a department. In other universities, professional work in education is done in schools or colleges of education set aside for that purpose. Such a school is comparable to the Ontario College of Education in the University of Toronto, except that the latter admits only university graduates to its general course, while the American colleges may accept students at the beginning of the freshman year, at the end of the junior year, or for graduate work.

29. The training of teachers for vocational schools has been subsidized in the United States by federal aid under the *Smith-Hughes Act* (1917) and the *George-Deen Act* (1936). Under these Acts, funds are provided for the training of teachers in agriculture, home economics, and trade and industrial subjects. The training may be provided directly by the State Department of Education, or by approved teacher education institutions.

TRENDS IN TEACHER EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES

30. In recent years important studies have been made in the field of teacher education in both England and the United States. In England, the

¹*State Teachers College Bulletin*, Buffalo, 1945-46, p. 42.

McNair Committee reported in 1944 on the supply, methods of recruitment, and training of teachers and youth leaders.¹ In the United States, a Commission on Teacher Education published its final report in 1946.² The following trends are noted with favour in both reports:

- (1) Accurate information regarding teaching as a profession is being made available to high school students, counsellors, and parents.
- (2) Programmes for the combined academic and professional preparation of teachers are being lengthened from two to three or more years.
- (3) The organization, administration, and programmes of teacher-training schools are becoming less rigid and authoritative.
- (4) Provision is being made for extended periods of continuous practice teaching.
- (5) Child study is receiving more attention.
- (6) Increased attention is being given to non-verbal types of instruction—activity in the arts, radio, silent and sound moving pictures, film strips, gramophone records, etc.
- (7) Student-teachers are being encouraged to take an active interest in community activities.

GENERAL ORGANIZATION OF THE PROPOSED TEACHER-TRAINING PROGRAMME FOR ONTARIO

31. A large proportion of the many briefs submitted to us stressed the need for an improved teacher-training programme. This is, we think, representative of public opinion in this province. The major representations were concerned with the recruitment and selection of candidates, the length of time to be devoted to pre-service training, the methods to be employed in the training of teachers, and the need for continuing professional preparation through the education of teachers in service. The need for improved ways and means of securing an adequate supply of teachers was constantly reiterated. These and other suggestions must be considered in the light of our recommended reorganization of the educational system. Similarly, in evaluating theories and practices elsewhere, we have paid particular attention to those which form part of educational organizations similar to that which we ourselves recommend.

32. In the light of all the evidence available, we have concluded that the programme of teacher training for this province should be determined in accordance with certain principles:

- (1) The programme should make available the services of teachers holding the highest possible personal, academic, and professional qualifications.

¹*Teachers and Youth Leaders*, Report of the Committee appointed by the President of the Board of Education to consider the Supply, Recruitment and Training of Teachers and Youth Leaders, London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1944.

²American Council on Education, *The Improvement of Teacher Education*, a Final Report by the Commission on Teacher Education, Washington: 1946.

- (2) The programme should be co-ordinated as far as possible with courses in the universities.
- (3) Adequate provision should be made, through courses offered by the universities and by the Department of Education, to permit teachers in service to improve their academic and professional qualifications.
- (4) An adequate supply of teachers must be secured and maintained.

33. In view of the existing shortage in the supply of teachers and the greater shortage forecast in our Interim Report,^{1*} any proposed plan of teacher training must incorporate a short-term as well as a long-term policy for the adequate staffing of our schools. Of the four principles above, the last-named is of such immediate importance and has such wide implications for the future that it restricts some teacher-training plans which should certainly be put into effect. We pointed out in our Interim Report that the shortage in the supply of teachers for elementary schools is serious and calls for emergency measures but that it represents only the beginning of a more serious situation. The result of the increased birth rate during and following the Second World War has been a steadily increasing enrolment in the lower grades of our elementary schools. If the present high rate of births is maintained for even five more years, the enrolment in our schools may well increase by approximately 350,000 pupils. Immigration, too, has added to the number of children enrolled, or who will be enrolled, in the schools. This prospective increase in enrolment would pose serious difficulties in teacher supply even if there were not the dearth of trained teachers which exists at the present time.

34. In the light of these facts, we made proposals in our Interim Report for an emergency training scheme for teachers for elementary schools. While some of our major recommendations have been implemented by the provincial government,² in our opinion the measures adopted fall far short of those required to meet the situation. It was our hope that the proposed emergency training scheme would counteract the present deficiencies in supply and prepare for an even greater demand for teachers. If this had been achieved, the requirements for admission to teacher-training institu-

¹*An Emergency Training Scheme for Teachers for the Public and Separate Schools of Ontario*, submitted December 2, 1949. This Report is reproduced in full as an appendix to this chapter.

*Commissioner Norman McLeod did not concur in the decision of the Commission to submit the Interim Report, nor did he agree with some of the recommendations made therein.

²As reported in Votes and Proceedings No. 33, the Minister of Education, in reply to the question "What steps have been taken to implement the first interim report of the Royal Commission on Education", stated in the Legislature under date of April 3, 1950, that:—"1. A study is being made of the future needs in school accommodation and teacher supply. 2. A Selection Committee is being established in connection with each Normal School, to interview applicants for admission to teacher-training courses. 3. Emergency teacher-training summer sessions will be offered in 1950 and 1951. 4. Provision is made in the estimates for additional staff and additional practice-teaching in the Normal Schools. 5. No reduction of academic qualifications is made."

tions and the standards of training could have been immediately raised. But the steps we deemed essential have not been taken. It is still our opinion that the situation with respect to the supply of teachers is acute, and will remain acute, and that emergency measures may have to be instituted even at this late date.

35. Within the next ten years, enrolment in the six grades of the new elementary schools will reach a peak. It is estimated that there will be 150,000 more pupils than are in the same grades today; this will require an additional 5,000 teachers. Similarly, by 1965 the effect of the increased birth rates of recent years may result in a further increase in enrolment in the proposed secondary schools of approximately 150,000 students. But the problem of supply of teachers for the new secondary schools is not of immediate urgency; there is yet time to prepare, if advantage is taken of it, since increases in enrolment will be relatively constant from year to year until a maximum is reached.

36. Enrolment in the proposed junior colleges, and later in universities, will also be affected proportionately. So many unknown factors and assumptions of doubtful validity are involved in the calculations, however, that we do not propose to estimate the effect of increased enrolment at these later stages of education. Fortunately, those responsible for education at these levels will be required to consider the problem at a time when fuller information will be available and when the present educational system will have been reorganized and operated under new conditions for a period of years.

37. In view of the misinterpretations—bordering on misrepresentations—of the recommendations contained in our Interim Report, “An Emergency Training Scheme for Teachers for the Public and Separate Schools of Ontario”, we feel compelled again to make it clear that we are opposed to any lowering of entrance requirements to teacher-training institutions. We stated in our Interim Report:

Before submitting our recommendations we must state that any lowering of qualifications for entrance to the teaching profession is contrary to our convictions. But we must be realistic; in our opinion, emergency measures must be instituted. A main feature of our proposals, however, is an enlargement of the source of supply from which candidates may be selected. It is our sincere hope that an adequate number of prospective teachers may be obtained without any appreciable reduction in the present requirements for admission to Provincial Normal Schools.

It is our hope that requirements for admission may be steadily raised until the possession of a Bachelor's degree from a recognized university is the minimum academic requirement for admission to any teacher-training course in the province. But the time is not yet. The proposals which we now make do, however, contemplate a raising of the entrance requirements and standards of training for teachers for elementary schools.

38. Figure 1 shows in diagrammatic form the general organization of the proposed programme for the training of teachers. Specialized courses,

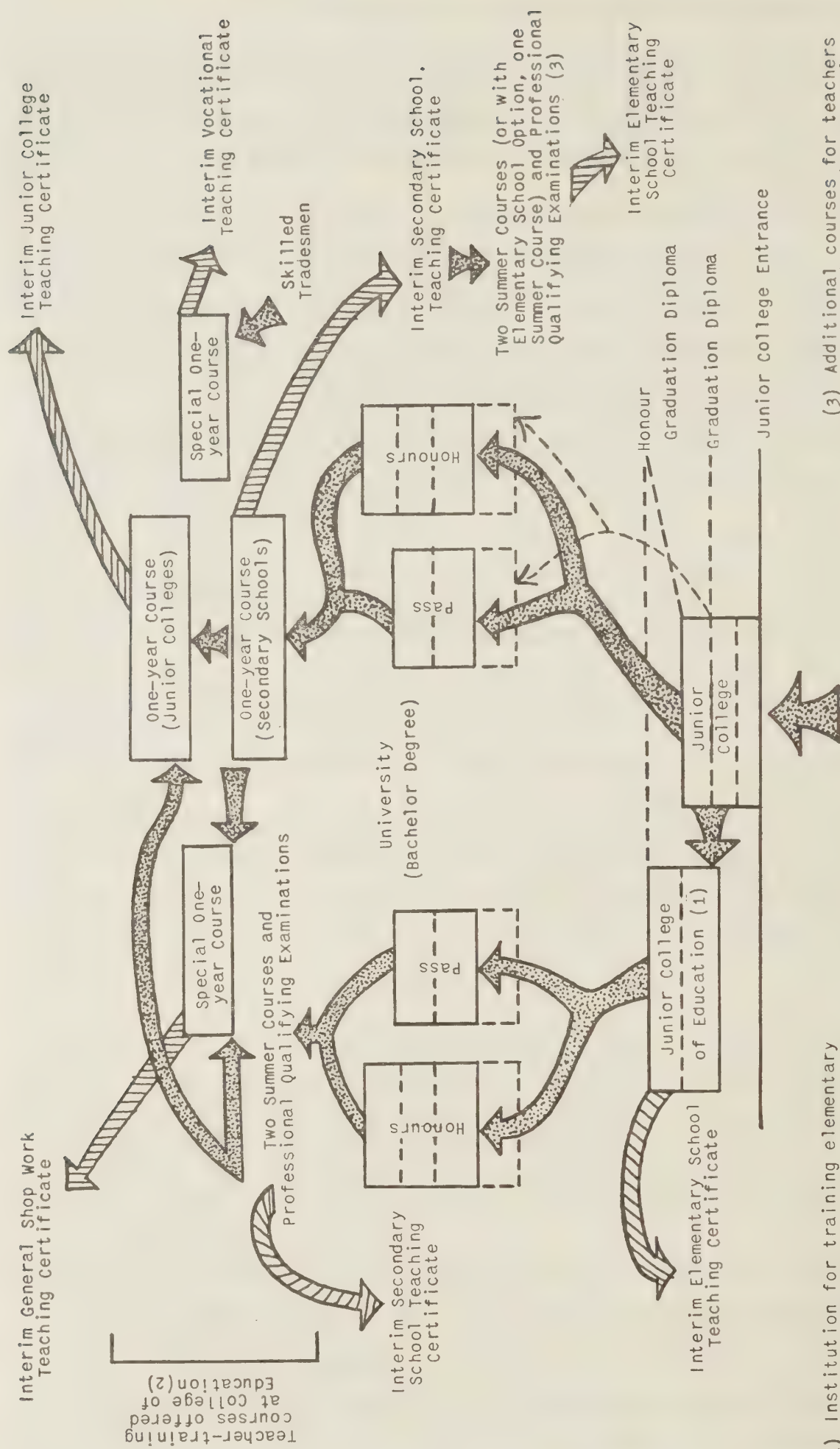
special and general summer courses, and post-graduate work in education are not shown. We have indicated, however, the general nature and length of the programmes we later recommend for the training of teachers for the elementary and secondary schools and junior colleges in the reorganized educational system.

39. The organization will include:

- (1) For the training of teachers for the proposed elementary schools: a two-year course to be taken in consecutive years; candidates to hold a junior college graduation diploma (equivalent, under our proposed reorganization, to the present Secondary School Honour Graduation Diploma—grade XIII or upper school); the course to lead to an Interim Elementary School Teaching Certificate.
- (2) For the training of teachers for the proposed secondary schools: a one-year course; candidates to hold, as at present, at least a Bachelor's degree; the course to lead to an Interim Secondary School Teaching Certificate.
- (3) For the training of teachers for the proposed junior colleges: a one-year course; candidates to hold the Secondary School Teaching Certificate; the course to lead to an Interim Junior College Teaching Certificate.
- (4) For the training of teachers of general shop work in secondary schools: a one-year course; candidates to hold a Secondary School Teaching Certificate; the course to lead to an Interim General Shop Work Teaching Certificate.
- (5) For the training of teachers of specialized shops in junior colleges (or in secondary schools where such specialized vocational courses are provided): a one-year course; candidates to hold at least a Junior College Graduation Diploma, to have completed apprenticeship training, and to have had journeyman experience in their trade; the course to lead to an Interim Vocational Teaching Certificate.

40. The foregoing form the bases of the proposed teacher-training programme, but the general arrangement of alternative courses may be described briefly at this point. An Interim Elementary School Teaching Certificate may be obtained in one of two ways by a candidate who has qualified for a Secondary School Teaching Certificate: he may qualify by taking the elementary school option provided in the one-year course for prospective secondary school teachers and, after completing a prescribed summer school course, by passing the required qualifying examinations; or, if the elementary school option has not been taken, by passing the required qualifying examinations, after completing two prescribed summer school courses. The holder of an Elementary School Teaching Certificate who obtains a Bachelor's degree from a university may, upon completing two prescribed summer school courses and passing the required qualifying examinations, be granted an Interim Secondary School Teaching Certificate.

TYPES OF COURSES



(1) Institution for training elementary school teachers

(2) Institution for training teachers for secondary schools and junior colleges

(3) Additional courses for teachers who hold a Secondary School Teaching Certificate and who wish to secure an Elementary School Teaching Certificate also.

FIG. 1. THE PROPOSED TEACHER-TRAINING PROGRAMME

41. Related to these general proposals is the question of responsibility for the organization and administration of programmes of teacher training. Early in the history of education in Ontario, the responsibility for providing teacher-training institutions, prescribing courses of study and qualifications of candidates, and certificating teachers was assumed by the central authority. Similarly, under the provisions of the present *Department of Education Act*, the responsibility is that of the Minister of Education. Nor would we wish it otherwise. It seems to us that in any system of publicly supported schools final authority and responsibility for the training of, the prescription of qualifications for, and the granting of certificates to, the teachers therein must lie with the central authority. While authority to train teachers may be delegated, for example through an agreement with a university to provide certain courses or sets of courses, final responsibility must remain with the elected representatives of the people. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that the Minister of Education be responsible for the professional education of prospective teachers for publicly supported schools;*
- (b) *that the Minister of Education be empowered*
 - (i) *to make regulations governing the granting of certificates of qualification to teachers and the suspension and cancellation thereof;*
 - (ii) *to enter into an agreement with the board of trustees of any publicly supported school respecting the use of the school or schools under its jurisdiction for purposes of observation and practice teaching by teachers in training.*

42. We are unable to concur in the view that the training of all prospective teachers for the publicly supported schools of the province should be provided by the universities. There is a trend in universities where the pre-professional and professional training of doctors, lawyers, and dentists is now given in one faculty or school to divide the work between the faculty or school and the faculty of arts. Apart from other considerations, this separation enables a professional school to select, more wisely, applicants for admission who have attained on the completion of their work in the faculty of arts a greater maturity than they had on the completion of grade XIII. This practice also makes it clearer to the prospective recruit for a profession that a grounding in such courses as literature, history, economics, philosophy, psychology, and physical or biological science is fundamental, and that professional training should be built on that foundation. Before one can pump water out of a cistern there must be water in it. Methodology is only a dry husk if the prospective teacher has little to expound properly to his pupils. To suggest that the only road to the teaching profession in Ontario schools should be a four-year course following junior college graduation or a three-year course following junior college honour graduation would be to strike a disastrous blow at the rather unique

honour courses in some of the Ontario universities that have provided, and are providing, some of the best entrants for the Ontario College of Education and some of the outstanding leaders in the educational system of this province. From a concentration in their honour courses, university students gain that rich content of knowledge and learning so essential to a teacher. Much of the foregoing that relates to graduates of faculties of arts in honour courses will be increasingly applicable to other graduates in arts as the revision, improvement, and strengthening of "pass" or "general" courses, recently undertaken by some Ontario universities, becomes effective. Personality, character, talent, and training for exposition are essential for a teacher, but they can never replace knowledge of a field or fields of instruction. The inclusion of professional subjects in a three- or four-year course in universities undoubtedly would be at the expense of the content of basic subjects so necessary for that liberal education which a teacher needs as much as, or even more than, the members of any other profession. We yield to no one in emphasizing the fundamental role of teachers in elementary schools. In this Report, we make recommendations which are designed to prepare them better for their tasks. The proposal to replace the present normal schools by junior colleges of education is, we believe, a long step forward in the training of teachers for elementary schools. We cannot agree that they will be helped by any plan that would lower the standards of training for teachers in the post-elementary schools.

43. The following seven principles underlie our proposals in the succeeding sections relating to specific aspects of the programme for the professional preparation of teachers:

- (1) The teacher-training programme should be designed to enable teachers to assist in the realization of the aims we have formulated for education in the various stages of the reorganized educational system.
- (2) Candidates for admission to teacher-training courses should be carefully selected: only those healthy in body and mind and possessing the highest possible personal and academic qualifications should be accepted for training; and during the period of training those who are found unsuitable for the profession should be weeded out.
- (3) The training programme and conditions of teaching service should be such as to attract and retain an increasing number of able young persons.
- (4) The professional education programme should provide full opportunity for the presentation of the theory of education, for adequate directed observation of skilful teaching, and for practice teaching on the part of students.
- (5) The programme should permit graduates of teacher-training institutions to continue their professional education and qualify for teaching certificates required for positions in schools of the other stages of the publicly supported educational system.

- (6) As part of a public system of education, all teacher-training institutions should be open to all students meeting prescribed admission requirements.
- (7) The success of the training programme will depend upon the competency of the teaching personnel of the training institutions and on that of practice teachers.¹

PROPOSED PROGRAMME FOR THE TRAINING OF
PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

44. We have recommended that responsibility for the professional education of teachers be vested in the Minister of Education. As a provincial responsibility, the programme, in our opinion, should be financed from provincial funds, and the administration of admission requirements, courses of study, certification of graduates, and allied matters should be centralized. To attain some measure of decentralization, considerable power, responsibility, and freedom should be delegated to the principals of the training schools.

45. For the training of teachers for elementary schools a number of training institutions will be necessary. They should be located strategically to serve the needs of the province. We suggest they be called "junior colleges of education". We recommend

that the Minister of Education be empowered to provide for the operation, administration, supervision, and financing of a number of institutions, to be designated junior colleges of education, for the professional education of teachers for publicly supported elementary schools.

46. Our study of the whole problem of training teachers for elementary schools in Ontario has convinced us that, as a minimum, a two-year programme of training, to be taken in consecutive years, will be required. We therefore recommend

that the professional preparation of prospective teachers for publicly supported elementary schools be afforded, to those qualified for admission, through a programme extending over a period of two consecutive years; or, alternatively, that, for candidates who hold a university degree approved as to standard and content of courses by the Minister of Education, the programme consist of an optional elementary school course, forming a part of the programme in the Ontario College of Education leading to the Secondary School Teaching Certificate, and a subsequent summer school course.

Buildings for Junior Colleges of Education

47. A survey of the present provincial normal school buildings has forced us to conclude that they are unsuitable for use as junior colleges of education. The Toronto Normal School building is greatly overcrowded;

¹See subsequent paragraphs.

and it lacks essential facilities for an adequate teacher-training programme, although the site is suitable and the grounds, comprising approximately six acres, are ample. The Ottawa Normal School building is sufficiently large and could be used if suitably altered. Unfortunately, almost the entire area of the grounds which were formerly a part of the school property is being used by the Dominion Government as a site for semi-permanent buildings. The location is not well suited for boarding accommodation or for practice teaching. Owing to its central location in the city, however, the property is valuable for business purposes, and its sale would undoubtedly realize a considerable sum. The London Normal School has ample grounds and is well located with respect to transportation, practice teaching, and boarding accommodation. But, although the school building is large, the interior is poorly designed and necessary alterations would be costly. The buildings at Hamilton, Peterborough, North Bay, and Stratford were built from the same blueprint early in the century. Their size and location are satisfactory, but the interior design is faulty—for example, the auditorium in each school is located on the third floor. All the normal school buildings lack gymnasias. With the possible exception of the North Bay Normal School, the lighting in all these institutions is quite inadequate. Furnishings are antiquated and worn to the point of shabbiness, while the repair and maintenance of the buildings is becoming an increasing burden owing to the age of the structures.

48. Under the circumstances, we believe that new buildings must be erected for the proposed junior colleges of education. To remodel the existing buildings is impracticable; the cost would probably exceed that of the construction of new buildings. If dormitories or residences are required, as they may well be, they should be planned and built in conjunction with the new schools. We recommend

- (a) *that new buildings be constructed for use as junior colleges of education;*
- (b) *that the cost of the school plant, including the site thereof and residential facilities where provided, and the cost of the maintenance and operation of a junior college of education be borne by the Provincial Government.*

Staffs of Junior Colleges of Education

49. It is essential that teachers in training regard teaching as a worthy profession; that they become conversant with, and, through practice, skilled in, the best teaching methods; and that they obtain a thorough knowledge of the subject matter they will be required to teach. For the realization of these aims, the staffs of our teacher-training institutions must, in large measure, be held responsible. We believe that a prospective member of staff of a junior college of education should possess high academic and

professional qualifications, and in personality be well suited for the duties and responsibilities his position will entail. We recommend

that the following be requirements for appointment to the staff of a junior college of education:

- (i) *a Secondary School Teaching Certificate, or, preferably, a Junior College Teaching Certificate, or the equivalent thereof;*
- (ii) *a Permanent Elementary School Teaching Certificate, or its equivalent;*
- (iii) *at least six years' successful teaching experience approved by the Minister;*
- (iv) *the passing of a medical examination conducted by a medical examiner appointed by the Minister;*
- (v) *the possession of high personal qualifications;*
- (vi) *preferably, the possession of an Elementary and Secondary School Inspector's Certificate and successful experience as a principal or inspector of elementary schools.*

50. Experience has proved the soundness of the present practice of appointing persons of administrative and supervisory experience to the staffs of teacher-training institutions. We suggest that the practice be continued, and that the Minister be empowered to second able individuals from the employ of a board of school trustees for temporary service in a junior college of education. Opportunity should be provided for an interchange of members of staff between any two junior colleges of education, between members of staff of a teacher-training institution and supervisors in the employ of local education authorities, and between members of staff of teacher-training institutions located in different provinces.

Requirements for Admission to a Junior College of Education

51. With reference to admission requirements, we recommend

- (a) *that an applicant for admission to a junior college of education be required to submit a Junior College Graduation Diploma or its equivalent, or, alternatively, a certificate stating that he holds a university degree approved as to standard and content of courses by the Minister of Education;*
- (b) *that before final admission to a course in a junior college of education an applicant be required to meet prescribed standards of health, character, and citizenship.*

52. In the selection of candidates, increased attention should be paid to personality and aptitude. While some progress has been made in developing means of evaluating these qualities, completely satisfactory measures have not yet been developed. We recommend

- (a) *that selection committees be appointed by the Minister of Education to interview, and evaluate the qualifications of, candidates*

applying for admission to a junior college of education and to recommend for admission those persons who possess the highest qualifications;

- (b) *that the principal of a junior college of education be authorized to dismiss from the school at any time during the session teachers in training who, in his judgment and that of the staff in consultation with the Superintendent of Professional Education, are lacking in scholarship, personality, or other qualities desirable in a teacher, or whose conduct, progress, or attendance is unsatisfactory.*

53. Candidates for entrance to a junior college of education should be encouraged to register for admission not later than the beginning of their second year in junior college. Where this is done, the principal of the junior college will be able to assist students to select appropriate courses in the junior college, and will be in a position to submit to the principal of a junior college of education information relating to the personality, aptitude, progress, and accomplishments of such students.

Programme of Junior Colleges of Education

54. While in attendance at a junior college of education, a student should be afforded an opportunity to continue his general education as well as to secure professional training. Thus, in our opinion, the programme of the teacher-training institution should include:

- (1) An extension of general education through a study of English and a limited number of other subjects of the programme of the third year of junior college.
- (2) A study of professional subjects such as methodology, school management and administration, educational psychology, and professional ethics.
- (3) Special attention to oral and written English (including speech training and production), library methods, methods of teaching religious education, and audio-visual teaching aids.
- (4) In addition to training in methods in physical and health education, a school health programme including utilization of health services for teachers in training.

55. Although the main purpose of the two-year course in the junior colleges of education will be to train teachers for the general work of the elementary schools, yet we feel that an opportunity should be provided in the second year for a limited amount of specialization in certain aspects of teaching. For example, for those qualified, training leading to a certificate to teach in nursery schools or kindergartens might be provided through an optional course. For these students an opportunity should be given to relate the theory and practice of teaching to their special field. Such an opportunity for specialization need be offered in only a limited number of junior colleges of education.

56. Directed observation and practice teaching are to the prospective teacher what internship is to the medical student. By directed observation is meant the observation of experienced teachers at work in their own classrooms and the discussion with these teachers of teaching methods and routine. Practice teaching is teaching under controlled conditions under the guidance and with the counsel of an experienced teacher (who is known as a practice teacher). We have been pleased to note that in recent years emphasis has been placed on a more adequate provision of "continuous practice teaching", where a student is assigned to a classroom for a continuous period of one or more weeks at a time. This is a sound development, and the amount of such practice teaching should be increased when the two-year programme is instituted.

57. We recommend

- (a) *that, early in the first year of training, a limited amount of directed observation and practice teaching be arranged for in both urban and rural schools on a single-lesson basis;*
- (b) *that, for the remainder of the first year and throughout the second year of training, practice teaching be organized in urban and rural schools on a continuous-teaching basis;*
- (c) *that the amount of time devoted to practice teaching at present be substantially increased in the new two-year programme.*

58. Upon successful completion of the two-year course, a candidate should be eligible for a Junior College Honour Graduation Diploma and also for an Interim Elementary School Teaching Certificate to be issued by the Department of Education. An Interim Elementary School Teaching Certificate should also be granted to a candidate successfully completing both the elementary school option in the Ontario College of Education and the subsequent prescribed summer school course, and, to a candidate holding the Secondary School Teaching Certificate who has not taken the elementary school option, upon successful completion of two prescribed summer school courses.

59. Teachers in training in junior colleges of education should be required to complete the two-year programme in consecutive years before becoming eligible for an Interim Elementary School Teaching Certificate. Except as an emergency measure, the Department of Education should not grant a candidate permission to teach, even for a limited period, following completion of only the first year of the course. Thus, at the end of the first year following the introduction of the two-year training programme, there will be no students graduating and, hence, qualifying for appointment to elementary school teaching positions in the following September. In view of the existing shortage in the supply of teachers for elementary schools, such a situation cannot be permitted to develop. The most acceptable solution appears to be to continue the present one-year programme of normal school training for one year following the introduction of the new two-

year programme. Thus, for one year the two types of programmes will run concurrently. Accordingly, we recommend

that, when the programme of teacher training in junior colleges of education is introduced, the present normal school programme be continued for one year and thereafter be discontinued.

PROPOSED PROGRAMME FOR THE TRAINING OF PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS
FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND JUNIOR COLLEGES

60. Three main types of organization for the training of teachers for post-elementary schools have emerged since the beginning of the present century.

61. Teachers colleges are designed primarily for the professional education of elementary and secondary school teachers, and usually provide a four-year course leading to a degree and a teaching certificate. The programme includes academic courses as well as professional training and practice teaching. Teachers colleges are generally independent of liberal arts colleges, and members of staff give instruction in both academic and professional subjects.

62. Faculties or departments of education are organized in established universities for the purpose of training prospective teachers for elementary and secondary schools. Academic and professional training are given concurrently, frequently in a four-year course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Education and to a teaching certificate. For much of their academic work, the teachers in training attend courses offered by the university in other faculties or departments, but the professional courses are usually given by members of the staff of the faculty or department of education.

63. In the third type of organization, professional training, generally of one year's duration, is deferred until the prospective teacher has secured a Bachelor's degree from a recognized university. The professional course may be offered in a faculty or department of a university, or in a separated college, and may lead to a teaching certificate only, or to a teaching certificate and a post-graduate degree in education.

64. After a consideration of the suitability of these and other possible types of organization in relation to the conditions and needs of our province, we have concluded that the most satisfactory organization for the professional preparation of teachers for post-elementary schools is that which requires a candidate to secure a Bachelor's degree from a recognized university before entering upon his professional training. In view of the high standards of our universities their facilities should be utilized to the fullest possible extent. But professional training should, in our opinion, be given, as at present, only in the provincial university—the University of Toronto—in the division known as the Ontario College of Education. We recommend

that the professional preparation of prospective teachers for secondary schools and junior colleges under the jurisdiction of the Department of Education be offered at the Ontario College of Education, University of Toronto.

65. Since we have recommended that responsibility for the professional education of teachers in training be vested in the Minister of Education, and since under *The Department of Education Act*, Section 9 (1), "the Minister with the approval of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council may establish and conduct the College of Education for the professional training and instruction of teachers . . .", we recommend

- (a) *that the Minister of Education enter into an agreement¹ with the Board of Governors of the University of Toronto with respect to the operation, administration, supervision, courses of study, and financing of the Ontario College of Education;*
- (b) *that Section 9 (2) of the present Department of Education Act, which states that "The expenses of establishing a college, the acquiring of property, plans, appliances and equipment therefor, the salaries of the officers, professors, instructors, teachers and servants of the college, and the maintenance thereof, shall be payable out of such moneys as may be appropriated by the Legislature for the purposes of the college of education", be continued.*

66. With reference to the general organization of the teacher-training programme to be offered in the Ontario College of Education,² we recommend

- (a) *that the professional preparation of teachers for secondary schools (excepting teachers of general shop work), leading to an Interim Secondary School Teaching Certificate, be afforded, for candidates who hold from a university a degree approved as to standard and content of courses by the Minister of Education and who are otherwise qualified, through a one-year course in the Ontario College of Education; or, alternatively, for candidates who, in addition, are graduates of a junior college of education, the preparation be afforded through two summer school courses, together with professional qualifying examinations, conducted by the Ontario College of Education;*
- (b) *that special preparation for teachers of general shop work in secondary schools be afforded, for candidates who hold a Secondary School Teaching Certificate or its equivalent and who are otherwise qualified, through a one-year course, or its equivalent, in gen-*

¹The existing agreement between the Minister of Education and the Governors of the University of Toronto was entered into in 1920. It requires revision, particularly to make explicit the respective authority and responsibility of the contracting parties.

²For a discussion of supplementary courses in the Ontario College of Education, see subsequent sections.

eral shop work in the Ontario College of Education leading to an Interim General Shop Work Teaching Certificate;

- (c) *that the professional preparation of teachers for junior colleges (excepting teachers of specialized shops in vocational courses therein) be afforded, for candidates who hold a Secondary School Teaching Certificate or its equivalent and who are otherwise qualified, through a one-year course in the Ontario College of Education leading to an Interim Junior College Teaching Certificate;*
- (d) *that the professional preparation for teachers of specialized shop in junior colleges (and in secondary schools where such specialized courses are provided) be afforded, for candidates who hold a Junior College Graduation Diploma or academic standing approved by the Minister of Education, and who have completed apprenticeship and at least three years' successful journeyman experience or their equivalents, and who are otherwise qualified, through a one-year course in the Ontario College of Education, leading to an Interim Vocational Teaching Certificate.*

Buildings of the Ontario College of Education

67. The Ontario College of Education, comprising eight departments or divisions, is located on Bloor Street West, in Toronto. The buildings are seriously overcrowded. Some departments, for example the Vocational Guidance Centre and the Department of Educational Research, have been obliged to secure temporary accommodation in other buildings. Even with the new wing, recently completed, adequate space for all departments, even for the present programme, is not available.

68. When our recommendations with reference to the training of teachers are implemented, all prospective teachers for secondary schools and junior colleges will be trained at the Ontario College of Education. As prospective teachers for all grades above grade VI will be included, and as additional teachers will be required to meet the increased enrolment in secondary schools resulting from the enforcement of compulsory attendance to age 16, the present enrolment of teachers in training at the Ontario College of Education may well, in due course, be doubled or even tripled. Under these circumstances, it will be impossible to accommodate the students in the present buildings. We therefore recommend

that, when the proposed programme for the training of teachers for secondary schools and junior colleges is implemented, additional buildings be constructed, as required, on the site of the present Ontario College of Education, or alternatively, that candidates for the Interim Secondary School Teaching Certificate and the necessary staff be accommodated in a new building on another site.¹

¹Some additional, but probably not sufficient, accommodation may be available if the recommendation of paragraph 85, below, is implemented.

Staff of the Ontario College of Education

69. The members of staff of the Ontario College of Education should possess high qualifications. We recommend

that, except for appointments to the staffs of the departments of research and graduate studies, the following be requirements for appointment as a member of staff of the Ontario College of Education:

- (i) at least a permanent Secondary School Teaching Certificate or its equivalent;*
- (ii) at least six years' successful teaching experience approved by the Minister, not less than two of which shall have been in a junior college or its equivalent;*
- (iii) preferably, the possession of an Elementary and Secondary School Inspector's Certificate and at least two years' successful experience as a principal or inspector of a secondary school or junior college, or similar experience approved by the Minister;*
- (iv) the passing of a medical examination conducted by a medical examiner appointed by the Minister;*
- (v) the possession of high personal qualifications.*

70. Exception to the required qualifications may have to be made in the case of appointees to instruct teachers in training in general and specialized shop work. It is unlikely that the services of skilled tradesmen holding academic and professional qualifications required of other members of staff can be secured. As a general rule, the qualifications of such appointees should be at least equivalent to those of teachers of these subjects in secondary schools and junior colleges.

71. The method of appointment to the staff of the College and the conditions governing service should be specified in the terms of the revised agreement between the Minister of Education and the Governors of the University of Toronto.

72. We believe it would be advantageous to arrange for the temporary interchange of members of staff of the College with inspectors of secondary schools and with those of junior colleges, and with members of staff of similar training institutions outside the province. Such arrangements are conducive to co-operation between the members of staff of the teacher-training institution and supervisory officials in the field, and also assist in the co-ordination of theory and practice.

Requirements for Admission to the Ontario College of Education

73. In addition to the requirements specified for the admission of students to each course as set forth in a previous recommendation, we recommend

- (a) that an applicant for admission to a teacher-training course in the Ontario College of Education be required to meet prescribed standards of health, character, and citizenship;*

- (b) *that before final admission to a course an applicant be required to be recommended for admission, as at present, by a selection committee appointed by the Dean of the Ontario College of Education;*
- (c) *that an applicant for an Interim Secondary School or Junior College Teaching Certificate with specialist standing be required to be a graduate of one of the specified honour courses in a university.*

Programmes of the Ontario College of Education

74. Training programmes for prospective teachers of post-elementary schools should be designed to give effect to the specific aims we have outlined for the new secondary schools and junior colleges. Unless care is exercised the aims may be thwarted. It would be disastrous, for example, to train teachers for the new secondary schools in a methodology which stresses specialization, since, as we have emphasized, the main purpose of these schools will be to afford a broad general education. It would be an equally serious mistake to fail to train teachers for junior colleges in a methodology which stresses specialization.

75. The course leading to the Interim Secondary School Teaching Certificate should include:¹

- (1) In addition to training in methods in physical and health education, a school health programme including utilization of health services for teachers in training.
- (2) A study of philosophy of education, educational psychology, teaching methods, school management and administration, and professional ethics.
- (3) Special attention to oral and written English (including speech training and production), library methods, and audio-visual teaching aids.
- (4) Provision for observation and practice teaching in typical urban and rural secondary schools.

76. A teacher who holds an Elementary School Teaching Certificate or its equivalent and a university degree approved as to standard and content of courses by the Minister of Education should be granted an Interim Secondary School Teaching Certificate after successfully completing two summer school courses and passing a professional qualifying examination conducted by the Ontario College of Education. Such teachers will hold certificates qualifying them to teach in either a secondary or an elementary school. It may be anticipated that a relatively large number of elementary school teachers will avail themselves of this opportunity to secure a Secondary School Teaching Certificate.

77. The programme leading to an Interim Junior College Teaching Certificate should include:

- (1) Graduate work in education similar to that at present required for the degree of Bachelor of Pedagogy.
- (2) Methodology relating to the courses of junior colleges.

¹See also the section on *Religious Education* in Chapter VI.

(3) Observation and practice teaching in junior colleges.

As an alternative to the one-year programme which we have recommended for this certificate, provision should be made to permit a candidate who has had successful teaching experience in a secondary school to qualify for an Interim Junior College Teaching Certificate by successfully completing two summer school courses in education and passing a professional qualifying examination conducted by the College of Education. The programme given in summer school courses should be equivalent in content and standards to the one-year programme.

78. Prospective teachers of general shop work in secondary schools should, as at present, be trained in the Department of Vocational Training and Industrial Arts and Crafts of the Ontario College of Education. Before admission these candidates will have secured a Secondary School Teaching Certificate, and the course should, therefore, be designed to give special training in general shop work and in methodology relating specifically to this field.

79. The one-year programme leading to the Interim Vocational Teaching Certificate should also be offered by the Department of Vocational Training and Industrial Arts and Crafts of the College of Education. Before admission, candidates will be required to have had practical experience in, and knowledge of, a trade. The purpose of the course will be to provide professional training with emphasis upon methodology relating to a specialized trade or trades. Opportunities for observation and practice teaching should be provided in junior colleges and, possibly, in the Ryerson Institute of Technology, Toronto.

Courses Leading to Supplementary Teaching Certificates

80. Many teachers in training at the Ontario College of Education elect to take, as one of their courses, a subject in which they may later specialize. Admission to courses in some of these subjects depends upon prior completion of specified courses in university. An equivalent training in the former courses, and also further training, may be secured through summer courses. Courses supplementary to those for the Interim High School Assistant's Certificate, Type B, are offered, which lead to certificates in physical education, art and crafts, vocal music, commercial work, industrial arts and crafts, school librarianship, home economics, and to the First Class Public School certificate. Training of this type, permitting preliminary or introductory specialization, should continue to be made available. Accordingly we recommend

that courses leading to supplementary teaching certificates continue to be offered at the Ontario College of Education.

When circumstances warrant, admission to some of these courses, for example home economics, should be restricted to candidates who hold a degree in the subject in which they wish to specialize.

The University of Toronto Schools

81. The University of Toronto Schools, located in the same building as the Ontario College of Education on Bloor Street West, Toronto, is a day secondary school for boys, and is operated by the College. The programme offered is based on the provincial secondary school curriculum and covers the work of grades IX to XIII inclusive. As there is no vocational department, the subjects of study are the same as those offered in a collegiate institute operated by a local education authority. The programme might be described as being preparatory to university entrance. "U.T.S.", as it is commonly called, has an enrolment of approximately 400. We have been advised that students are admitted on the basis of competitive academic examinations and a personal interview and that, for the most part, they are residents of Toronto and adjacent suburban municipalities. The cost of operating the school, except for revenue received from the nominal fees paid by students, is included in the budget of the Ontario College of Education and financed through the University of Toronto from the annual appropriation for the Ontario College of Education voted by the Legislature.

82. To a very limited extent, the University of Toronto Schools is used for observation and practice teaching by teachers in training at the Ontario College of Education. Indeed, it was apparently designed originally to serve as a model school, similar to those formerly operated in conjunction with provincial normal schools. At one time a similar school for girls was contemplated.

83. For observation and practice teaching, the Ontario College of Education at the present time makes use of the facilities of many of the secondary schools in Toronto and vicinity and of some in other parts of the province. It is estimated that not more than one-third of the teachers in training at the College secure observation and practice teaching in the classrooms of the University of Toronto Schools. No teacher in training receives all his observation and practice teaching in the classrooms of this school. A limited amount of experimental work in education, restricted in scope, has been conducted in the University of Toronto Schools, but it is not operated as an experimental school.

84. We have secured as much information as possible regarding the programme and operation of the University of Toronto Schools; but we have been unable to secure data relating to total or per-pupil cost, since its expenditures are not recorded separately. In view of the fact that only a small fraction of the total observation and practice teaching of the College is conducted in the University of Toronto Schools, its operation at public expense as a "model school" cannot, in our opinion, be justified. In fact, model schools for other provincial teacher-training institutions have been discontinued. Although the university-preparatory courses provided for the selected group of students may be excellent, U. T. S. does not draw its students from the province as a whole. In the main, it serves only

Toronto and adjacent municipalities, which already possess secondary school facilities of a high calibre. The operation of the school at public expense cannot be justified on the basis that it serves the whole province. Nor do the students represent all economic levels. In many respects, the University of Toronto Schools is not typical of the secondary schools of the province. It is not without significance that in the "Directory of Private Schools", issued by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics, University of Toronto Schools is listed as "private".

85. The experience of other countries leads us to believe that a small experimental school enrolling girls and boys, staffed with specially selected teachers, and drawing its students from all parts of the province and all walks of life might well be a valuable adjunct to the Ontario College of Education, and, through the College, might serve the educational interests of the province. We recommend

- (a) *that, unless the University of Toronto Schools be conducted as a co-educational institution and be adapted to serve, in connection with the Ontario College of Education, as an experimental school for the benefit of education in the province as a whole, it be discontinued;*
- (b) *that, if the University of Toronto Schools is reorganized and conducted as an experimental school, arrangements for its operation be incorporated in an agreement to be entered into by the Minister of Education and the Governors of the University of Toronto, and a separate accounting system be established in order that the cost of its operation may be ascertained.*

Interim Measures to Staff the New Secondary Schools and Junior Colleges

86. We appreciate that for some years it will be impossible to secure the services of a sufficient number of teachers holding the qualifications we have recommended to staff the new secondary schools and junior colleges. We are strongly of opinion that, in any event, teachers holding positions in our present elementary and secondary schools should be assured that the reorganization of the educational system will not adversely affect their status. It is not intended that the changes in the educational system and in the teacher-training programme should disqualify teachers who have obtained their teaching certificates under the present regulations or make it impossible for them to secure appointment to the teaching staff of a new elementary or secondary school or junior college.

87. In order that a sufficient number of teachers may be secured in the immediate future to staff the new secondary schools and junior colleges, we recommend

- (a) *that an experienced teacher employed in an elementary school who holds a Permanent First Class teaching certificate and who is recommended by his inspector or inspectors as being well qualified*

for the position be granted permission by the Department of Education to accept immediate appointment to the staff of a new secondary school;

- (b) that an experienced teacher employed in a secondary school who holds a Permanent High School Assistant's Certificate and who is recommended by his inspector or inspectors as being well qualified for the position be granted permission by the Department of Education to accept immediate appointment to the staff of a junior college;*
- (c) that, following two years' successful experience in such schools as certified by his inspector or inspectors, a teacher so appointed who holds a Bachelor's degree be granted by the Department of Education a permanent certificate qualifying him to teach in the schools of the higher stage.*

OTHER RECOMMENDATIONS RELATING TO THE PROGRAMME FOR THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

88. The physical and mental health of teachers has a direct effect on the health and well-being of their pupils. It is important that prospective teachers who are admitted to a teacher-training institution should be free from serious physical and mental disabilities. The cost of the medical examination which all candidates undergo before they are finally admitted as teachers in training is, at present, borne equally by the Department of Education and the Teachers' Superannuation Commission. If certain acute physical or mental conditions are disclosed by the examination, the applicant is excluded from attendance; if, however, he is suffering from less aggravated conditions, which do not warrant exclusion but which may in the future prevent him from continuing his teaching career, the applicant is admitted to the teacher-training institution provided he signs a waiver of disability privileges under the Teachers' Superannuation Fund. We recommend

- (a) that a high standard of physical and mental health continue to be prescribed as an admission requirement to a teacher-training institution;*
- (b) that the passing of a complete medical examination conducted by a qualified medical examiner appointed by the Department of Health continue to be prescribed as an admission requirement to a teacher-training institution;*
- (c) that the total of such examination be borne by the Department of Education;*
- (d) that, if such examination discloses physical or mental conditions which in their present form may adversely affect the well-being of pupils taught by the individual concerned, or which may reasonably be expected to become aggravated to the extent that they may*

have this effect, the applicant be refused admission to the teacher-training institution;

- (e) that the standards of physical and mental health prescribed for admission to a teacher-training institution be raised as soon as possible to such a level that the use of waivers in relation to superannuation benefits may be discontinued;*
- (f) that a complete school health programme be conducted in each teacher-training institution.*

89. With reference to the payment of fees by teachers in training, we recommend

- (a) that in junior colleges of education the payment of tuition fees be not required of any student ordinarily resident in Ontario;*
- (b) that tuition, examination, graduation, or other fees imposed upon teachers in training in attendance at the Ontario College of Education be subject to the approval of the Minister of Education.*

90. We further recommend

- (a) that the Department of Education pay a teacher in training the cost of return transportation to his home, once a year, in excess of a fixed minimum amount;*
- (b) that the cost of transporting teachers in training for observation and practice teaching to and from schools beyond the municipality in which the teacher-training institution is situated be borne by the Department of Education;*
- (c) that, where, for an extended period of continuous observation and practice teaching, a teacher in training is required to be absent from the municipality in which the teacher-training institution is situated, he be paid a living allowance for such period by the Department of Education.*

91. In order that no student suitably qualified may, for economic reasons alone, be prevented from attending a teacher-training institution, we recommend

that scholarships and bursaries be available under specified conditions for teachers in training in any provincial teacher-training institution.

92. Respecting the means of obtaining permanent Elementary School, Secondary School, and Junior College Teaching Certificates, we recommend

- (a) that an interim teaching certificate be valid for a period of three years and be subject to renewal on an annual basis thereafter for such period as the Minister of Education may deem expedient;*
- (b) that the holder of an interim teaching certificate be granted a permanent teaching certificate following two years' successful teaching experience as certified by his inspector or inspectors;*
- (c) that the practice of requiring the successful completion of summer school courses as a requirement for a permanent teaching certificate be discontinued.*

93. The success of any teacher-training programme depends to a considerable extent upon the practical experience obtained by teachers in training under the supervision of the practice teachers in whose classrooms they observe and teach. We recommend

- (a) *that only mature and efficient teachers in the employ of a local education authority be appointed as practice teachers;*
- (b) *that, in addition to their annual salary from a local education authority, the Department of Education pay practice teachers a sum sufficient to compensate them for services in connection with observation and practice teaching;*
- (c) *that the Department of Education pay a local education authority an annual sum for each classroom under its jurisdiction used for observation and practice-teaching purposes.*

94. In order to provide an opportunity for selecting the staff of a teacher-training institution, we recommend

that vacancies on staffs of junior colleges of education and the Ontario College of Education be advertised in a newspaper or newspapers having circulation throughout the province.

PROPOSED PROGRAMME FOR THE TRAINING OF PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS OF SPECIAL SCHOOLS AND CLASSES¹

95. Teachers of handicapped children should have special academic and professional training and special qualifications of personality and aptitude. In view of the nature of the training required and the need to secure observation and practice teaching in special schools or classes, it is not feasible to provide the necessary special courses at the usual teacher-training institutions. Moreover, we believe that a teacher should not be admitted to a training programme of this type unless evidence of successful teaching experience in a regular classroom has been submitted.

96. We recommend

- (a) *that the special professional preparation of teachers for schools and classes for handicapped children (with the exception of teachers of the blind or deaf) be afforded through summer courses for persons who hold an Elementary School or Secondary School Teaching Certificate and who have been recommended by their principal and inspector as having had successful experience and as possessing special personal qualifications and aptitude for such work; and that the programme be equivalent in content, extent, and standard to that of a one-year professional course;*
- (b) *that, upon successful completion of the programme, a candidate be granted by the Department of Education an Interim Special Education Teaching Certificate, and that the special field in which he is qualified be noted thereon;*

¹See also Chapter XV.

- (c) *that, following two years' successful teaching experience in the special field for which he has qualified, the teacher be granted a Permanent Special Education Teaching Certificate.*

97. With reference to the training of teachers of blind or deaf pupils, the present arrangements seem to us satisfactory, and we recommend

- (a) *that special professional preparation for teachers of the blind or deaf continue to be afforded through a one-year course in the Ontario School for the Blind or the Ontario School for the Deaf, respectively, for candidates who hold an Elementary School or Secondary School Teaching Certificate and who have been recommended by their principal and inspector as having had successful teaching experience and as possessing special personal qualifications and aptitude for such work;*
- (b) *that, upon successful completion of the programme, a candidate be granted by the Department of Education an Interim Teaching Certificate of the Blind (or Deaf);*
- (c) *that, following two years' successful teaching experience in a school or class for blind (or deaf) pupils, a teacher holding an Interim Teaching Certificate of the Blind (or Deaf) be granted by the Department of Education a Permanent Teaching Certificate of the Blind (or Deaf).*

PROPOSED PROGRAMME FOR THE TRAINING OF PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS
FOR PROVINCIAL TECHNICAL INSTITUTES

98. Prospective teachers for technical institutes should be highly skilled in the specialized trade to be taught, should have successfully completed at least the first two years of junior college or its equivalent, and should have an understanding of industrial relations and problems. Of necessity, their professional training will have to be secured in a technical institute where observation and practice teaching of the type required may be obtained. The programme of professional training should include:

- (1) A summer course in school management, methods of teaching, educational psychology, personnel problems, job evaluation, time studies, and industrial relations and management, under the Department of Vocational Training and Industrial Arts and Crafts of the Ontario College of Education.
- (2) A one-year programme of observation and practice teaching in a technical institute.

99. We recommend

- (a) *that, for prospective teachers for technical institutes who hold a Junior College Graduation Diploma or equivalent academic standing approved by the Minister of Education, who have specialized training and experience satisfactory to the Minister of Education in an industrial or commercial field, and who are otherwise quali-*

fied, special professional preparation be afforded through courses offered at an institute during the school year and at a summer school; and that the full programme be in content, extent, and standard equivalent to that of a one-year professional course;

- (b) that, upon successful completion of the programme, a candidate be granted by the Department of Education an Interim Technical Institute Teaching Certificate, and that the special field in which he has qualified be noted thereon;*
- (c) that, following two years' successful teaching experience in the special field for which he is qualified, the teacher be granted a Permanent Technical Institute Teaching Certificate.*

Teachers of academic subjects in technical institutes, such as mathematics, chemistry, and English, should have qualifications at least equivalent to those required of teachers in junior colleges.

THE TEACHER-TRAINING PROGRAMME IN RELATION TO COURSES IN UNIVERSITIES

100. We have designed our proposed teacher-training programme so that it may be co-ordinated with courses offered in universities. Its success will depend to a large extent on the arrangements for co-ordination made with the universities. We refer particularly to the granting by a university of credit toward a degree for the successful completion of professional courses. University entrance requirements, courses, and examinations are outside our terms of reference, and we cannot make direct recommendations relating to them. Nevertheless, we strongly urge that the Minister of Education confer with representatives of the universities of the province on ways and means whereby courses of professional training may be co-ordinated with courses in universities. We recommend

- (a) that the Minister of Education request university authorities in Ontario to consider granting at least one year's credit toward a Bachelor's degree for successful completion of the two-year course in a junior college of education;*
- (b) that the Minister of Education request the authorities of the University of Toronto to consider*
 - (i) awarding a Bachelor of Education degree to candidates who successfully complete the course in the Ontario College of Education leading to the Interim Secondary School Teaching Certificate;*
 - (ii) awarding a Master of Education degree to candidates who successfully complete the course in the Ontario College of Education leading to the Interim Junior College Teaching Certificate.*

101. We have noted, and warmly commend, provisions made by the several universities, through special courses offered in winter and summer

sessions, to permit teachers to improve their academic and professional qualifications. Although the terms of our reference preclude recommendations on this subject, we strongly urge that the universities continue to offer, and extend, these opportunities.

102. Although, strictly speaking, post-graduate courses in education may also be outside the terms of our remit, a brief reference must be made to them. The Ontario College of Education at present offers two types of such courses: those leading to the degrees of B.Paed. and D.Paed.; and those in the Department of Educational Theory leading to the degrees of M.A. and Ph.D. The courses in pedagogy are offered in winter and summer sessions, but a candidate may complete the required courses through attendance at summer sessions only. Candidates for the D.Paed. degree must pass a qualifying examination, complete two additional courses which may be taken in a summer session, and submit an acceptable thesis. Attendance at the regular sessions of the University is not required.

103. For the M.A. and Ph.D. courses, students are required to be in full-time attendance during regular sessions of the University, and the thesis required for the latter degree is usually completed during this time. Since these courses are not offered in summer sessions, many teachers are unable for financial reasons to undertake advanced work in education leading to these degrees. An increased enrolment might result if more scholarships, assistantships, or opportunities for part-time employment within the College of Education were available.

104. If the degrees of B.Ed. and M.Ed. were established, it would seem logical to discontinue the courses leading to the B.Paed. and D.Paed. degrees and to provide instead a programme leading to a Doctor of Education degree under the School of Graduate Studies, University of Toronto. The courses leading to the degrees of M.A. and Ph.D. in education should be continued. Accordingly, we recommend

that post-graduate work in education be afforded through courses in the Department of Educational Theory, Ontario College of Education, of a standard sufficiently high to permit candidates to secure through the School of Graduate Studies, University of Toronto, the degrees of Master of Arts, Doctor of Philosophy, and Doctor of Education.

105. Adequate physical accommodation for graduate students and members of staff—offices, seminar rooms, space for study, and access to mechanical calculators—cannot be provided in the space at present available in the Ontario College of Education. It is futile to plan an expanded programme of graduate studies in education unless and until proper physical conditions are provided.

106. There are not at present enough members of staff to supervise and direct graduate studies in education at the Ontario College of Education. In research and in theoretical and applied statistics, a sufficient number of fully qualified staff members are available. In the history of education, like-

wise, a competent member of staff can supervise the work. Administration is supervised by the Dean of the College as one of his manifold duties. But in almost all other phases of graduate work in education, adequate supervision and direction cannot be given. For summer school courses the services of lecturers from other provinces and countries can be secured; but, in our opinion, unless the staff for the regular session is augmented, a full programme of graduate studies in education cannot be conducted.

107. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that qualified personnel be appointed to the staff of the Ontario College of Education, sufficient in number adequately to supervise and direct graduate studies in education; and that, for such appointments, persons of outstanding ability be selected whether or not they reside in Ontario;*
- (b) *that personnel so appointed be permitted, as required, to instruct students enrolled in courses leading to Interim Secondary School and Junior College Teaching Certificates.*

108. If a sufficient number of additional competent persons are appointed to the staff, the College of Education should become the leading school in Canada for post-graduate work in education. Ontario has the resources to establish such a school. If the opportunity is not seized, graduate students will seek training in other countries and, in this event, many of the more gifted will not return to Canada.

SUMMER SCHOOL COURSES OFFERED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

109. Although we recognize the value of courses in general or cultural education offered by universities, we propose to confine our discussion to summer school professional courses. These were initially instituted for the purpose of training teachers for special fields in education, and in nearly all cases were organized and conducted under the supervision of directors of special departments or branches within the Department of Education. Later, these specialized courses were utilized to provide the training prescribed for teachers seeking permanent teaching certificates. As a result, many teachers, in order to secure a permanent teaching certificate, have devoted the major portion of their in-service training to special subjects in which they had neither hope nor intention of specializing. Further, the special courses have been, in the main, operated as independent units. While effective work has admittedly been accomplished, discrepancies are apparent in the requirements for admission, in the duration, standard, and content of courses, and in the terminology applied to the various types of certificates.

110. Professional summer school courses offered by the Department of Education include:

(1) *Courses Leading to Certificates:*

Agriculture, Art and Crafts, Audio-Visual Aids, Auxiliary Education, Commercial Subjects, Education, Guidance, High School Assistant's Type B, Home Economics, Industrial Arts and Crafts, Music, Oral French, Physical and Health Education, Primary Methods, School Librarianship, and courses for teachers in vocational schools.

(2) *Refresher Courses Leading to Letters of Standing:*

Art and Crafts, Auxiliary Education Course in Crafts, Commercial Subjects, Home Economics, English, Geography, Latin, Mathematics, Science, and Elementary School Principal's Course.

Except in the course in Education and certain refresher courses, specific training in languages, social studies, science, and mathematics is but meagrely provided in summer courses. In general, however, it appears that the existing summer school courses largely suffice to meet the need, but that co-ordination and uniformity in standard and content are required. Summer school courses should be closely co-ordinated with pre-service professional education in order that a unified programme may be developed.

111. We recommend

- (a) *that opportunities for the continuing professional advancement of teachers in service be afforded through summer school courses and other media and be co-ordinated with the programme of pre-service professional preparation;*
- (b) *that the direction, planning, organization, and supervision of summer school courses offered by the Department of Education be made a responsibility of the Division of Professional Education of the Department of Education;*
- (c) *that the administration, including registration and issuance of certificates, of summer school courses offered by the Department of Education be made a responsibility of the Division of the Registrar of the Department of Education.*

APPENDIX TO CHAPTER XXII

TO HIS HONOUR, THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR OF ONTARIO

Sir:

By direction and on behalf of The Royal Commission on Education, appointed by Order-in-Council under date of March 21st, 1945, I have the honour to submit a brief report which discusses the present grave and impending graver shortage of duly trained and certificated teachers in the province, and puts forward definite recommendations to cope therewith. Teacher training generally will be treated in greater detail and in its more permanent aspects in the forthcoming full report of the Commission. However, the subject matter of the present brief report is basic and of such great importance and urgency that, in the opinion of the Commission, its immediate submission is demanded.

After due consideration, it is the opinion of the Commission that the submission of a partial report upon any other phase of education, such as organization, administration, finance, or programmes of study, is inadvisable. These subjects are in nature so complex and interrelated that they must of necessity be reported comprehensively and as a unit. May I, however, assure you, Sir, on behalf of the Commission that its final report is being completed as expeditiously as possible.

I have the honour to be,

Sir,

Your obedient servant,

(Signed) J. A. HOPE
Chairman,

The Royal Commission on Education.

December 2, 1949.

REPORT ON
AN EMERGENCY TRAINING SCHEME FOR TEACHERS FOR
THE PUBLIC AND SEPARATE SCHOOLS OF ONTARIO

SUBMITTED BY
THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON EDUCATION

The general proposals of the Commission relating to the training of teachers for the schools of Ontario will be contained in our final report, but our findings with reference to the present and future supply of teaching personnel for the elementary schools of the province are of such major and immediate import that, in our opinion, it is our duty as a Commission to bring them forthwith to the attention of those charged with responsibility for the training and certification of teachers.

A major aim of education authorities must be to secure for each classroom the services of a teacher whose academic and professional qualifications meet at least a prescribed minimum. In this connection, consideration must be given to the effect on school enrolment of growth in total population, and consequently, to the number of additional teachers required. In Ontario, as in other countries, the number of live births increased during and following the Second World War and, inevitably, this will be reflected in an increased school enrolment. Indeed, in other countries—the United States, England, and New Zealand, for example—steps have been taken or are under consideration to train additional candidates for the teaching profession in order to ensure an adequate supply of teaching personnel for the immediate future. For this province, the steadily increasing school enrolment in prospect for the elementary schools has such implications with reference to the supply of teachers that, in our opinion, emergency measures are imperative.

Supply of Teachers for the Elementary Schools of Ontario

Prospective teachers for publicly supported elementary schools in Ontario, with few exceptions, receive their training in one of eight Provincial Normal Schools, through a one-year course leading to an interim teaching certificate,¹ which may be made permanent following successful teaching experience as certified by an Inspector or Inspectors, and the successful completion of a specified number of summer courses.

From data relating to enrolment in the Provincial Normal Schools, as given in Reports of the Minister of Education, it is evident that since 1934-35, when prescribed requirements for admission were raised, the number of elementary school teachers trained each year has been insufficient to replace those leaving the profession annually. In 1944-45, for example, the total enrolment in Normal Schools was 765—about half the number needed for purposes of replacement. Nearly ten years earlier, it had been realized that a shortage of teachers might develop. In the Report of the Minister of Education for 1936, W. J. Karr, Director of Professional Training at that time, stated, "If the low attendance in the training schools continues, the province will soon experience a shortage of teachers for the elementary schools". This prediction has been realized, but the situation has been aggravated by an occurrence unforeseen at that time, the advent of the Second World War.

Subsequent to the outbreak of war in 1939, the following steps were taken by the Minister of Education to overcome the shortage of teachers for Public and Separate Schools:

(a) In 1940, applicants who had standing in eight of the required nine

¹Each of the eight Normal Schools offers a course leading to the Interim First Class certificate; the University of Ottawa Normal School also offers a course leading to an Interim Second Class certificate.

Upper School (Grade XIII) papers were regularly admitted; in 1943 those who had standing in seven, and in 1944 in five papers, were admitted to Normal School on condition that if successful they would be granted Deferred Interim First Class certificates, and Interim First Class certificates when standing on the additional Upper School papers had been secured; since 1948 an applicant, otherwise qualified, who has standing in five Upper School papers, one of which is English Literature or English Composition,¹ has been admitted to the course leading to an Interim First Class certificate, and completion of additional Upper School papers has not been prescribed.

- (b) In 1944, an "Emergency Normal School Summer Session" was established. To this course were admitted applicants who had at least full Middle School standing. Attendance at two summer sessions, each of six weeks' duration, was prescribed; 620 attended the first Summer Session and of these 572 were granted Deferred Interim Second Class certificates valid for one year; 466 returned in 1945 for the second Summer Session and 449 were granted Interim Second Class certificates. In 1947, Part I of an Emergency Normal School Summer Session was again held, to which were admitted applicants with Middle School standing who, in accordance with a new policy, still in effect, had taught for at least five months on Letters of Permission;² 324 attended and of these 298 were granted Deferred Interim Second Class certificates; 273 returned in 1948 for the second Summer Session, and 257 were granted Interim Second Class certificates. Concurrently, Part I of another Emergency Normal School Summer Session was offered in 1948, and of the 242 enrolled, 221 were granted Deferred Interim Second Class certificates; 230 were enrolled in Part II of the course in 1949, and 217 received Interim Second Class certificates. Part I of another Summer Session was begun in 1949, to which were admitted 251 applicants of whom 228 received Deferred Interim Second Class certificates; in accordance with the regulations, those who were successful and who wish to obtain an Interim Second Class certificate will be required to complete successfully a second Summer Session in 1950.

During the war years, when some boards of trustees were unable to secure teachers holding certificates valid in elementary schools, the Department of Education issued Letters of Permission, commonly called "Permits". The number issued increased from 46 in 1940-41 to 720 in 1943-44 and, following the introduction of Part I of the Emergency Normal School

¹In the case of the University of Ottawa Normal School, a second prescribed paper is French Literature or French Composition.

²A Letter of Permission may be granted by the Department of Education to a local board of trustees which is unable to secure the services of a teacher holding a certificate valid in the elementary schools of Ontario, permitting it to employ on an annual basis a person not holding such certificate.

Summer Session in 1944, decreased to 571 in 1944-45. But the number issued was 912 in 1945-46, and 1211 in 1946-47, and, as will be seen from the following table, has remained at approximately 1100 since that date. It will also be noted that those classified as Group A in the table had some professional training, but that the majority of these in each year had failed at Normal School or held expired Third Class certificates. Moreover, a

QUALIFICATIONS OF PERSONS ON WHOSE BEHALF LETTERS OF PERMISSION
HAVE BEEN ISSUED BY THE ONTARIO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Qualifications	Number of Letters of Permission Issued				
	1945-46	1946-47	1947-48	1948-49	1949-50 ^a
<i>Group A</i>					
Holders of expired Ontario Third Class certificates	217	190	158	154	130
Persons who failed at Ontario College of Education	2
Persons who failed at Ontario Normal Schools	92	84	85	96	88
Certificates from other provinces	154	184	229	213	186
Holders of High School Assistants' certificates	1	1	4	2	8
TOTAL	466	459	476	465	412
<i>Group B</i>					
University graduates	7	16	35	32	26
Some University work	29	31	18	26	10
Persons of Upper School standing	157	302	241	222	166
Persons of part Upper School standing	42	93	62	62	36
Persons of Middle School standing	172	241	227	226	151
Persons of part Middle School standing	23	31	38	36	34
Persons of Lower School standing	16	38	40	31	15
TOTAL	446	752	661	635	438
GRAND TOTAL	912	1,211	1,137	1,100	850 ^b

^aAs of November 18th, 1949.
^bOn the basis of experience of preceding years, it is estimated that this number will increase to approximately 1,100 during the present school-year.

majority of those on whose behalf Letters of Permission were issued each year had no professional training (Group B); and of these, approximately one-half had Middle School (Grade XII) or lower standing. The issuance of Letters of Permission has been a matter of much concern to members of the Commission: the number issued annually has not been decreasing; and they are issued almost invariably to boards of trustees of rural schools.

The number of candidates enrolled in the regular and emergency Normal School sessions, the number of Letters of Permission issued, and the number of elementary school teachers leaving the profession, have been relatively constant during recent years. Consequently, it is anomalous that statistics reveal that the number of children enrolled and the number of

teachers in service in the elementary schools have been increasing steadily; the relevant data are given in the following table:

PUPILS AND TEACHERS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF ONTARIO

<i>School Year</i>	<i>Pupils</i>		<i>Teachers</i>	
	<i>Enrolment</i>	<i>Increase over previous year</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Increase over previous year</i>
1946-47	550,210		18,313	
1947-48	564,529	14,319	18,692 ^a	379
1948-49	588,111	23,582	19,198 ^a	506
1949-50	595,402 ^b	7,291 ^b	19,896 ^a	698

^aNumber reported in September 1947, 1948 and 1949, respectively.

^bActual enrolment reported September 1949; based upon experience of preceding years, it is estimated that these numbers will be increased by at least 10,000 during the school-year.

It is evident that from some source or sources other than those considered, from 300 to 700 additional teachers each year entered teaching service in elementary schools. Information made available to us probably identifies the source. The number of teachers certificated in earlier years in our province or in other provinces who re-entered, or entered, as the case may be, the ranks of the elementary school teachers of Ontario during the last four years has been substantial. We have been unable to determine how many of this group were married women who resumed teaching, or men and women who resumed teaching following participation in the war effort, but we have reason to believe that the number was large. Undoubtedly, increased enrolment of pupils did not always necessitate the employment of additional teachers as in some schools places were available in the classrooms in operation. The following pupil-teacher ratios for elementary schools for the last four years tend to verify this assumption: September, 1946—29.8; September, 1947—29.6; September, 1948—30.2; September, 1949—29.9.

From evidence available there can be no doubt that the situation with respect to the supply of elementary school teachers holding teaching certificates valid in the province remains acute. In fact, the Emergency Normal School Summer Session is becoming standard practice, although it must be obvious that this measure alone cannot overcome the shortage.

It appears to us that a first objective must be to discontinue the Emergency Normal School Summer Sessions and the issuance of Letters of Permission. To achieve this by September 1st, 1951, at least 1,350 teachers for elementary schools, in addition to the number normally certificated, must be trained prior to that date. This, despite the difficulties entailed, is but a relatively minor aspect of a major issue. The prospect of steadily increasing enrolments in elementary schools in the near future provides indisputable proof that a problem of teacher supply of much greater magnitude is imminent.

Forecast of Enrolment in Elementary Schools in Ontario

Our forecast of enrolment, which follows, is based upon the number of live births recorded for the years immediately prior to and following the outbreak of the Second World War. For the purposes of the present study, it has been assumed that present conditions and regulations relating to school attendance will remain unchanged. Estimates of enrolment for the school years 1954-55 to 1957-58, inclusive, are based on the further assumption that the number of live births for each of the calendar years 1949 to 1952 will be approximately equal to the number reported for 1948. Nor have we taken into consideration increases in population, and consequently school enrolment, which may result from immigration, although it is known that the number of persons immigrating to Ontario has increased from about 9,000 in 1945 to over 60,000 in 1948.¹ Apparently, from 20 to 25 per cent of such persons are under eighteen years of age; and we estimate that possibly 15 per cent of those immigrating to Ontario are children of elementary school age. If this be true, approximately 7,500 should be added to each of our estimated annual increases in total enrolment for Grades I to VIII, inclusive, for each of the years during which immigration on the present scale continues.

According to the records of vital statistics, the number of live births in Ontario for each year from 1937 to 1949, inclusive, is as follows:

NUMBER OF LIVE BIRTHS IN ONTARIO	
<i>Year</i>	<i>Number</i>
1937	61,645
1938	65,564
1939	64,123
1940	68,524
1941	72,262
1942	78,192
1943	80,677
1944	78,090
1945	78,974
1946	97,446
1947	108,853
1948	104,151 ^a
1949	104,000 ^b

^aPreliminary figure.
^bEstimate based on births reported for the first six months of 1949.

Where the number of live births in any year shows an increase over the number in the preceding year, enrolment in the early grades of the schools six or seven years later will be increased proportionately. Indeed, the effect of the increases in number of live births during the early years of the war is already noticeable. For example, the enrolment in school of six-year old children increased from 44,748 in 1945-46 to 49,029 in 1946-47, and to

¹It is estimated that the number will be approximately 50,000 in 1949.

52,979 in 1947-48. Similarly, the number of seven-year old children enrolled in school increased from 60,547 in 1946-47 to 65,360 in 1947-48. This, however, is but the beginning: the greatest increases in school enrolment in the case of six-year old children will come in the school years 1952-53 and 1953-54; in the case of seven-year old children in 1953-54 and 1954-55, and for eight-year old children in 1954-55 and 1955-56.

Given below are our estimated increases in total school enrolment for Grades I to VIII for the school years 1950-51 to 1957-58, inclusive, and the estimated number of additional teachers required each year. Increases which may result from immigration have not been included, nor have we taken into consideration probable increases in enrolment in Kindergartens, Kindergarten-Primary Classes, and Junior Auxiliary Classes. The estimate of the annual increase in number of teachers needed is based on a ratio of thirty pupils per teacher. We noted earlier that from 1946 to 1949 this ratio in Ontario was approximately equal to thirty.

ESTIMATE OF INCREASES IN ENROLMENT AND ADDITIONAL TEACHERS REQUIRED

<i>School Year</i>	<i>Annual Increase in Total Enrolment in Grades I to VIII</i>	<i>Annual Increase in Number of Teachers Required for Grades I to VIII</i>
1950-51	13,500	450
1951-52	19,400	645
1952-53	27,600	920
1953-54	31,800	1,060
1954-55	30,900	1,030
1955-56	29,000	965
1956-57	26,800	895
1957-58	23,600	785

The estimated annual increases in enrolment in elementary schools are startling. Within the next ten years total enrolment in Grades I to VIII may increase by approximately 250,000! As a consequence, approximately 8,000 additional teachers must be trained during these years; and, unhappily, we are faced with this problem at a time when 1,100 persons in charge of classrooms in our elementary schools do not possess prescribed teaching certificates valid for such positions. It is in view of these data and the compelling urgency of the situation that we submit proposals with respect to an emergency training programme for teachers for elementary schools.

Before submitting our recommendations we must state that any lowering of qualifications for entrance to the teaching profession is contrary to our convictions. But we must be realistic; in our opinion, emergency measures must be instituted. A main feature of our proposals, however, is an enlargement of the source of supply from which candidates may be selected. It is our sincere hope that an adequate number of prospective teachers may be obtained without any appreciable reduction in present requirements for admission to Provincial Normal Schools.

We also wish to record that we have been conservative in our estimates of possible future needs. If reference is made to a report on Elementary and Secondary Education in Canada, 1944-46, published by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics in 1949, it will be seen that the increases in school enrolment and the number of teachers required, forecast therein, are considerably higher.

Recommendations for an Emergency Teacher Training Programme

From information we have been able to obtain, indications are that increases in enrolment in elementary schools will not be confined to any one type of community or to any one section of the province. We cannot predict the increases for each local situation. We are aware that in some areas a greater number of children can be accommodated in existing classrooms without employment of more teachers. For some localities, on the other hand, we are of opinion that an extensive school building programme and an increase in the number of teachers on the staff will be necessary. Accordingly we recommend

that to obtain an estimate of future needs, the Department of Education secure through Public and Separate School boards of trustees and inspectors data for each locality for each of the school-years 1950-51, 1951-52, and 1952-53, relating to

- (i) the number of elementary school pupils who may be enrolled;*
- (ii) the number of elementary school teachers whose services may be required;*
- (iii) the number of existing elementary school classrooms which should be replaced; and*
- (iv) the number of additional elementary school classrooms which may be required.*

If our forecasts receive substantial confirmation as a result of the survey we have recommended, and more particularly if, as we think possible, our estimates are shown to be too conservative, we recommend that the following measures be initiated:

- 1. (a) that beginning in September, 1950, and continuing until such time as an adequate supply of duly trained and certificated elementary school teachers has been assured, candidates for training as elementary school teachers be enrolled in an Emergency Teacher Training Scheme; and*
(b) that when the Emergency Teacher Training Scheme is initiated the plan of training elementary school teachers followed at present be discontinued forthwith;
- 2. that the length of each training course under the Emergency Teacher Training Scheme be one school-year;*
- 3. that Selection Committees be appointed by the Minister of Education to interview and evaluate the qualifications of all candidates applying*

for admission to the Emergency Training Scheme, in order that the said Committees may select and recommend for admission those persons who possess the highest personal and academic qualifications;

4. *that, subject to the recommendations of the Selection Committees and the approval of the Minister of Education, there be admitted to the Emergency Teacher Training Scheme candidates who meet prescribed standards of health, character, and citizenship and*
 - (i) *who hold at least prescribed Grades XI and XII (Middle School) standing; or*
 - (ii) *who, in the opinion of the Selection Committees, have had successful experience in employment in other fields and have in educational achievement at least the equivalent of Grades XI and XII (Middle School) standing;*
5. (a) *that, upon application and where required, a teacher-in-training under the Emergency Teacher Training Scheme be granted financial assistance by the Department of Education;*
 - (b) *that, in the case of a teacher-in-training under the Emergency Training Scheme who has a dependent spouse, child, or children, further financial assistance, upon application and where required, be granted by the Department of Education in the form of family allowances; and*
 - (c) *that consideration be given to the advisability of requiring repayment, in whole or in part, of the total amount of financial assistance so granted;*
6. *That teachers-in-training upon successful completion of the one-year course of the Emergency Teacher Training Scheme be granted*
 - (a) *in the case of a candidate who prior to admission to the course had successful experience in employment in other fields, an Interim First Class teaching certificate; and*
 - (b) *in the case of other candidates whose academic standing prior to admission*
 - (i) *would, under the present regulations, qualify them for admission to the First Class course in Normal Schools, Interim First Class teaching certificates;*
 - (ii) *would not, under the present regulations, qualify them for admission to the First Class course in Normal Schools, Interim Second Class teaching certificates;*
7. *that an Interim First Class or Second Class teaching certificate awarded under the Emergency Teacher Training Scheme be made permanent after two years' successful teaching experience as certified by an Inspector or Inspectors; and that evidence of successful completion of summer school courses be not required;*
8. *that, as required, the staff for the Emergency Teacher Training Scheme be increased, and that to this end persons suitably qualified be seconded*

- from the inspectoral and teaching staffs of publicly supported schools; and that, as required, additional practice teachers be employed;*
9. *that the present Normal School buildings be used for the Emergency Teacher Training Scheme, and that, if required, additional equipment be obtained and additional accommodation be constructed or otherwise secured;*
 10. (a) *that the Minister of Education be empowered to designate an attendance zone for each of the training schools under the Emergency Teacher Training Scheme; and*
(b) *that where a candidate cannot be accommodated in the training school located in the attendance zone in which he resides, the Minister of Education be empowered to assign him to another training school;*
 11. (a) *that the Emergency Normal School Summer Session begun in 1949 be completed in 1950 under the present regulations;*
(b) *that under the present regulations Part I of an Emergency Normal School Summer Session be offered in 1950, and Part II in the summer of 1951; and*
(c) *that, following completion of Part II of the Emergency Normal School Summer Session in 1951, the practice of training teachers through Emergency Normal School Summer Sessions be discontinued.*

Other Aspects of the Emergency Situation

The prime purpose of our special report has been to direct attention to an emergency situation which will develop almost immediately with reference to the training of teachers for elementary schools. It is a foregone conclusion, however, that increased enrolment in elementary schools will mean the expenditure of substantial additional sums of money for teachers' salaries, classroom accommodation and other costs of operation; and, in due course, proportionately increased enrolment in secondary schools, with its attendant difficulties, will give rise to similar problems in that stage of education. Discussion of these matters will be incorporated in our final report.

Enlistment of Public Support

If the deficiency in the supply of certificated teachers for elementary schools is to be overcome, every possible means must be employed to attract suitable persons to apply for admission to the Emergency Teacher Training Scheme. We suggest that full use be made of the radio, newspapers, and other media to acquaint the public with the gravity of the situation. If in any year a scarcity of trained teachers develops, it will, for the most part, be the children in rural areas whose education will be jeopardized. We view such a possibility with concern, and sincerely hope that emergency

plans sufficient in scope will be introduced to ensure an adequate education for all children in our elementary schools.

The emergency situation which we have outlined places a major responsibility upon the teaching profession. If teachers can find it possible to serve in the profession for a longer period of time, and to return to it as circumstances permit, many of the more serious difficulties may be avoided. Teachers can render valuable assistance in other ways; in particular, through service as members of Selection Committees, and through support of the emergency programme. We suggest that education authorities, local as well as provincial, in preparing and initiating programmes to meet the emergency, consult with and seek the co-operation of members of the teaching profession.

The exigency which we have envisaged will present a challenge to every community in the province. Measures instituted, if they are to be fully successful, must have the co-operation of all concerned, particularly parents, teachers, and local and provincial education authorities.

*Approved by resolution of
The Royal Commission on Education
in private session on November 24th, 1949*

(Signed) J. A. HOPE
Chairman

The Royal Commission on Education

December 2nd, 1949

CHAPTER XXIII

CONDITIONS OF SERVICE OF TEACHING PERSONNEL

AGREEMENTS BETWEEN TEACHERS AND BOARDS OF SCHOOL TRUSTEES

1. The appointment of teachers is a responsibility of local education authorities. Applications for vacant teaching posts are generally invited by advertisement, and appointments are made following personal interviews with selected applicants. The board frequently requests school inspectors or other officials of the Department of Education to submit confidential reports on the qualifications of applicants. There is no central employment or placement agency. A board of school trustees also has authority to dismiss teachers, subject to *The Teachers' Boards of Reference Act, 1946*, where applicable, and to transfer them from one position on the staff to another, to prescribe their duties, and to fix their salaries.

2. Statutory provisions governing a contract of employment made between a teacher and a board of school trustees are contained in each of the school Acts. The following is typical:

A memorandum of every contract of employment between a board and a teacher shall be made in writing in the form of contract prescribed by the regulations, signed by the parties, sealed with the seal of the board and executed before the teacher enters upon his duties, but if for any reason such memorandum is not so made every contract shall be deemed to include the terms and conditions contained in the prescribed form of contract.¹

3. *The Department of Education Act* empowers the Minister of Education, subject to the approval of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, to make regulations:

- (e) prescribing the form of contract which shall be used for every contract entered into between a board and a teacher for the services of the teacher;
- (f) prescribing the terms and conditions which shall be deemed to be part of every contract entered into between a board and a teacher for the services of the teacher whether or not such terms and conditions are actually set out in the contract.²

In conformity with this, the following regulations were issued on November 26, 1943:

¹*The High Schools Act*, R.S.O. 1937, Ch. 360, Sec. 56 (1), as amended by 13 Geo. VI, Ch. 38, Sec. 17, S.O., 1949.

²*The Department of Education Act*, R.S.O. 1937, Ch. 356, Sec. 4 (1).

Every contract entered into between a board of public school trustees, board of separate school trustees, high school board, or board of education and a teacher for the services of the teacher shall be deemed to contain and be subject to the terms and conditions contained in the form of Agreement hereinafter set forth¹ whether or not such terms and conditions are actually set out in the contract.

This regulation shall apply only to contracts of teachers on the permanent staff of such a board and shall not apply to the contracts of probationary, occasional, temporary or part-time teachers.

4. These regulations have not been registered under *The Regulations Act*; hence, legally, there is at present no prescribed form of contract. In practice, teachers and boards, pending revision and registration of the pertinent regulations, are following the 1943 regulations despite the fact that these are no longer valid and are therefore not binding upon either party.

5. Since the statutes require that each teacher enter into a contract, or "memorandum" of a contract, with his employing board of school trustees, it is advisable to have some degree of uniformity in the terms, conditions, and general provisions of such contracts. Logically, these should be prescribed by the central authority. The simplest way to achieve the desired result appears to be to specify in the statutes a set of standard conditions deemed to be embodied in each contract entered into between a teacher and a board, whether or not they are actually set out in the contract.

6. Distinction must be made between two types of appointment: to the part-time, occasional, or temporary staff; and to the permanent teaching staff. The standard conditions of engagement should apply to appointments of the second type only.²

7. We recommend

- (a) *that standard conditions deemed to be embodied in engagements of teachers appointed on a probationary or continuing basis to the permanent teaching staff of a board of school trustees be incorporated in the proposed Education Act;*
- (b) *that the standard conditions of engagement be not applicable to the appointment of teachers on a part-time, occasional, or temporary basis.*

8. As a summary of our conclusions and as an illustration of the conditions which we believe should be incorporated in the statutes and be deemed to be embodied in all engagements of teachers on a probationary or continuing basis, we have prepared the following set of standard conditions:

Standard Conditions of Engagement Deemed to be Embodied in Engagements of Teachers on a Probationary or Continuing Basis

(1) The yearly salary stated in the offer of employment, or to which the Teacher is otherwise entitled, shall be payable by the Board in not less than ten

¹The form of agreement prescribed is known as *E. & S. No. 3*.

²Including any person teaching on a Letter of Permission issued to the board of school trustees.

equal monthly payments, unless some other arrangement is stated in the offer of employment. For any teaching day in any month on which the Teacher is absent from duty, except as hereinafter provided, the Board shall deduct from that monthly payment to the Teacher an amount equal to one two-hundredth of the yearly salary. Payments shall be subject to appropriate deductions for superannuation contributions, income tax, membership fee of the Ontario Teachers' Federation, and other authorized purposes.

(2) (a) The period of employment shall commence on the day to be stated in the offer of employment and shall end on the 31st day of the month of August then next following, unless some other day is stated in the offer of employment.

(b) If the Teacher is not notified on or before the 1st day of June following the date of employment that his employment is to be deemed to be terminated as of the 31st day of August following his initial engagement by the Board, his period of employment shall continue from year to year until lawfully terminated as hereinafter provided.

(3) By accepting an offer of employment, the Teacher agrees with the Board diligently and faithfully to teach and conduct the work assigned by or under the authority of the said Board during the said period of employment, or renewal or renewals thereof, according to the Statutes and Regulations in that behalf and pursuant to by-laws, rules, and regulations of the Board, and to perform such duties and teach such subjects, as may be assigned from time to time, in accordance with the instructions, by-laws, rules, and regulations of the said Board and the aforesaid Statutes and Regulations.

(4) The engagement of the Teacher and his service as an employee of the Board shall be subject to the following conditions:

(a) The Teacher shall continue to hold teaching qualifications valid in the province during the aforesaid period of employment or any renewal or renewals thereof.

(b) The Teacher shall be exempted from duties on holidays and vacations, as prescribed by the Statutes or Regulations in that behalf, during the said period of employment or any renewal or renewals thereof.

(c) The days on which the Teacher has attended meetings of Teachers' Institutes, pursuant to the Statutes and Regulations in that behalf, shall be considered as having been served in the school.

(d) The Teacher shall be entitled to his salary notwithstanding his absence from duty on account of sickness for a period not exceeding twenty teaching days in any one year of his employment if the sickness is certified to by a physician or, in a case of acute inflammatory condition of the teeth or gums, by a licentiate of dental surgery.

(e) If the Teacher enters into any contract, either oral or written, for subsequent employment with any other Public School Board, Separate School Board, Regional Board of Education, or Regional Post-elementary School Board before the 1st day of June in any year after the commencement of the period of employment and before the termination thereof, notification in writing shall be given by the Teacher to the Board within 48 hours of entering into such contract.

(f) Any changes in salary mutually agreed upon by the Board and the Teacher and salary schedules of the Board in force from time to time, shall, in so far as they are applicable, form part of this Agreement as if written herein.

(5) The employment of the Teacher shall be terminated

(a) by impossibility of performance of this Agreement by either the Board or the Teacher, or

(b) by mutual consent of the Board and the Teacher, or

(c) on the 31st day of December in any year following the commencement of the period of employment, provided a written notice to that effect contain-

ing the reason or reasons be given by either the Board or the Teacher to the other on or before the 30th day of November immediately prior to the said 31st day of December, or

(d) on the 31st day of August in any year following the commencement of the period of employment, provided a written notice to that effect containing the reason or reasons be given by either the Board or the Teacher to the other on or before the 1st day of June immediately prior to the said 31st day of August, or

(e) forthwith, by either the Board or the Teacher if the other shall commit a breach of any term or terms of this Agreement or is guilty of conduct which vitally affects the welfare of the Board, Teacher, or pupils.

9. In the opinion of the Counsel to the Commission, the legal position at present appears to be that each contract between a teacher and a board of school trustees must be in writing, drawn in the form prescribed by the regulations, signed by the contracting parties, sealed with the seal of the board, and executed before the teacher enters upon his duties. Despite the mandatory requirements within the pertinent section of each Act, it is apparently contemplated, according to the wording of the Acts, that in some cases either no written contract may be entered into or a form of contract other than the prescribed form may be used. In this event, the statutes provide “. . . if for any reason such memorandum is not so made every contract shall be deemed to include the terms and conditions contained in the prescribed form of contract.”¹

10. We have discovered some cases where no written contract has been executed by the teacher and board and other cases where the contract entered into was not in the prescribed form. Indeed, it has been argued that under the present statutory provisions no written contract need be executed. If any doubt does exist, the Legislature should remove it through clarification of the statutory requirements. Each appointee to the permanent teaching staff of a school should enter into some form of written contract with his employing board of school trustees before he commences his duties. Where the standard conditions of engagement are set forth in the statutes and thereby embodied in all engagements of teachers on a probationary or continuing basis, there appears to be no need to execute a contract in a prescribed form. Subject to such standard conditions and to the by-laws of the board of school trustees, it should be sufficient for the teacher and board to execute a written offer and acceptance of employment.

11. We recommend

(a) *that every agreement of employment between a local education authority and a teacher appointed on a probationary or continuing basis to the permanent teaching staff of the contracting board be made in writing in the form of an offer and acceptance of employment, be signed by the parties thereto, be sealed with the seal of the board, and be executed before the teacher enters upon his duties;*

¹See *The High Schools Act*, R.S.O., 1937, Ch. 360, Sec. 56 (1), as amended by 13 Geo. VI, Ch. 38, Sec. 17, S.O., 1949.

12. To illustrate the form in which the offer of employment by a board and the acceptance thereof by a teacher may be drawn, we give below a draft of a standard form of offer and acceptance. It is suggested that one copy be retained by the teacher and a second be returned to the board of school trustees.

that standard conditions of engagement and forms of offer and acceptance of employment be the subject of consultation among representatives of the Minister of Education, the Ontario Teachers' Federation, and trustee associations.

(To be forwarded in duplicate. The Teacher in accepting will return one signed copy to the Board.)

To:.....

as teacher for the

This offer remains open for acceptance for.....days from the date hereof and unless the teacher's acceptance is communicated to the Board within that time, the offer shall be deemed to be withdrawn.

ACCEPTANCE OF EMPLOYMENT

a copy of the Board's by-laws touching the duties of teachers.

Dated at.....this.....day of....., 19.....
 (Teacher)

DUTIES OF TEACHERS

14. A teacher is required to teach diligently and faithfully the subjects assigned to him, to maintain proper order and discipline, and to encourage pupils in the pursuit of learning. The duties of teachers are prescribed in some detail in *The Public Schools Act* and *The Separate Schools Act* but not in the various Acts relating to secondary schools. Where not specified in an Act, the duties are laid down in the regulations made pursuant to it.

15. Although a board of trustees has the general duty and power to prescribe the duties of teachers in its employ and to set them forth in by-laws and regulations, such a prescription of duties is subject to the provisions of the statutes and the regulations made thereunder by the Minister of Education. Thus, duties prescribed by a local education authority are supplementary to those prescribed by the central authority. In practice, not all boards have set forth a list of duties of teachers in by-laws and regulations. Presumably, many boards have been content to accept the duties specified by the central authority and to prescribe others as the need arose.

16. In Section 3 of the illustrative list of standard conditions of engagement, we have included the fulfillment of duties by the teacher as one of the standard conditions of engagement; and the illustrative standard form of offer of employment refers to "A copy of the by-laws of the Board touching the duties of teachers . . ." The duties to be required of teachers are, in our opinion, a condition of engagement set forth by the board in its offer of employment and agreed to by the teacher in his acceptance of appointment.

17. While it is difficult to devise a standard list of duties to meet all situations, yet it is possible, as is done at present, to list a minimum number in the statutes and regulations. Supplementary duties should be prescribed by a local education authority in by-laws or regulations. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that a list of standard duties of teachers (including principals and heads of departments) be incorporated in the proposed Education Act and regulations pertaining thereto;*
- (b) *that, when deemed necessary, a local education authority prescribe supplementary duties of teachers in its by-laws or regulations;*
- (c) *that a copy of the by-law or regulations containing the list of supplementary duties be forwarded by a local education authority with its offer of employment to a teacher;*
- (d) *that a copy of each new by-law or regulation of a local education authority touching upon the duties of teachers be forwarded by it to each teacher in its employ.*

SECURITY OF TENURE

18. Security of tenure is determined by the conditions of engagement in the contract of employment between a teacher and a board of school

trustees. Under the present prescribed form of agreement,¹ the intention appears to be to place the contract on a continuing basis from year to year until terminated in accordance with specified conditions. But it may be argued that the wording is such that the contract is, in effect, an annual agreement ending on August 31 unless terminated earlier under stipulated conditions.

19. In our illustrative set of standard conditions of engagement, we suggested in Section 2 (b) that the "employment shall continue from year to year until lawfully terminated"; and Section 5 set forth the conditions under which the employment might be terminated. We have, therefore, with an exception to be discussed in the next paragraph, proposed that in all appointments to the permanent teaching staff of a board employment continue from year to year until lawfully terminated.

20. The first year, or part thereof, of employment with a particular board should, however, be on a probationary basis. Accordingly, in Section 2 (a) of the standard conditions of engagement, we suggest that the initial period of employment "end on the 31st day of the month of August then next following" the date of commencement of employment. Under Section 2 (b) thereof, however, we suggest that, unless the teacher is notified on or before the 1st day of June following the date of initial engagement that his employment is to be terminated on the 31st day of August, the period of employment continue from year to year "until lawfully terminated".

21. We recommend

that the standard conditions of engagement deemed to be embodied in appointments of teachers to the permanent teaching staff of a board of school trustees provide

- (i) *that the initial appointment of a teacher by a board be on a probationary basis, and that provision be made for termination of employment on the 31st day of August following the date of appointment;*
- (ii) *that thereafter the teacher's period of employment continue from year to year until lawfully terminated in accordance with the standard conditions of engagement.*

22. *The Teachers' Boards of Reference Act, 1946*, provides that, where a teacher's contract is terminated either by the board or by the teacher in a manner not mutually satisfactory, application may be made by the dissatisfied party to the Minister of Education for a Board of Reference. Upon receipt of such a request, the Minister must inquire into the method adopted in terminating the agreement. He then directs that the contract be continued in force for a period not exceeding one year or appoints a board of reference, under the chairmanship of a Judge, to inquire further into the matter. The board of reference consists of the chairman, a representative of the board of school trustees, and a representative of the teacher.

¹E. & S. No. 3.

The board's findings, in the form of a report, are made to the Minister. If the report recommends that the contract be continued in force, the Minister must direct that it be so continued for a period of one year, or for such lesser time as has been recommended or as the Minister himself deems advisable. If a board of school trustees fails to comply with the direction of the Minister, legislative grants will not be paid to it until it has complied with such direction; if a teacher fails to comply with the direction of the Minister, his certificate may be suspended for such period as the Minister may deem advisable.

23. In general, *The Teachers' Boards of Reference Act* appears to be satisfactory in its present form, subject to the minor amendments set out below. We recommend

- (a) *That The Teachers' Boards of Reference Act be clarified, where necessary, to make certain that its provisions apply only to termination of employment, not to changes in specific duties or responsibilities assigned to a teacher;*
- (b) *that, following review and acceptance of the report of the board of reference by the Minister of Education, and so long as the party is in contempt of the findings of the board, the Minister of Education be required*
 - (i) *in the case of a board of school trustees, to withhold payment of legislative grants;*
 - (ii) *in the case of a teacher, to suspend his teaching certificate;*
- (c) *that Section 10 (1) of the Act be revised to read, in part, as follows:*
"All or such reasonable portion of the grant as the Minister determines, then or thereafter payable to the board . . . shall not be payable to the board until it has complied with such direction";
- (d) *that Section 4 (1) (a) and Section 8, referring to the direction of the Minister regarding the contract, be revised to read, in part, as follows:*
". . . such contract shall be deemed not to have been terminated";
- (e) *that representatives to be named pursuant to Sections 4 (3) and 4 (4) be persons other than the teacher or group of teachers, or member or employee of the board or boards of trustees, involved in the dispute.*

24. Regulation 4 (c) made pursuant to *The Teaching Profession Act, 1944*, states in part:

. . . it shall be considered unprofessional conduct for a member,—

.

(c) to accept employment with a board of trustees whose relations with the Federation are unsatisfactory to the Federation, except with the specific consent of the Minister . . .

Under this section, the Federation is the sole judge as to what constitutes “unsatisfactory” relations with it. This is not equitable to a board of school trustees, nor to the ratepayers whose duly selected representatives constitute the board. We feel that an opportunity should be provided for a board of trustees to appear before a neutral body and present its case. Accordingly we recommend

*that a section be added to The Teachers’ Boards of Reference Act, 1946, to make adequate provision for determining the validity or propriety of any action taken by the Ontario Teachers’ Federation as contemplated by present Regulation 4 (c) made pursuant to The Teaching Profession Act, 1944.*¹

25. We recommend, further,

that, subject to the changes recommended above, the sections of the present Teachers’ Boards of Reference Act be incorporated in the proposed Education Act.

26. Temporary leave of absence with pay because of illness, or “sick leave” as it is generally called, provides a degree of security of tenure. Provision is made for sick leave in certain sections of the statutes and in the present prescribed form of agreement between a teacher and a board of trustees. In case of illness, the teacher is entitled to his salary for a period “not exceeding four weeks in any one year”,² provided he submits a medical or dental certificate; but “the period of four weeks may in any case of sickness be allowed and extended at the pleasure of the board without a certificate”.³ Many boards exercise their authority and judgment through the extension of the minimum period specified by statute and through the provision of cumulative sick leave in accordance with local by-laws or regulations.

27. We believe that provision should continue to be made for sick leave for teachers and include such provision in the illustrative set of standard conditions of engagement. But the general provisions should be in the statutes rather than in the regulations or contract of employment and, if repeated in the latter, should conform to the statutory provisions. The phrase in the present statutes—“four weeks in any one year”—is open to misinterpretation and should be changed to read, “twenty teaching days in any one school year”. We recommend

(a) *that, subject to the change of the phrase “four weeks in any one year” to “twenty teaching days in any one school year”, the present provision for sick leave for teachers be incorporated in the proposed Education Act;*

(b) *that provision be made in the statutes permitting a board of school trustees, at its discretion, to extend the period of sick leave beyond*

¹See paragraph 97 below.

²The Public Schools Act, R.S.O., 1937, Ch. 357, Sec. 106 (4).

³Ibid.

twenty teaching days in any one school year, subject to the submission by the teacher of a medical certificate.

28. There is no specific provision in statutes or regulations, through a "cumulative sick leave" plan, to provide protection for members of the teaching profession in the event of long periods of illness. The value and desirability of cumulative sick leave are widely recognized by employers, and we have found that in many cases boards of school trustees have initiated such a plan without specific authorization by statute or regulation. The plans in operation vary greatly in the benefits they provide, and are often used as an inducement to persuade a teacher to enter the employ of a particular school board. This practice may be commendable locally, but it does not improve relationships throughout the province between boards or between boards and teachers. We believe that provision should be made for a cumulative sick leave plan applicable to all teachers who are appointed to the permanent teaching staffs of boards of school trustees, and accordingly we recommend

that one-half of each year's unused portion of the statutory twenty teaching days' sick leave be cumulative from year to year on behalf of a teacher while he remains an employee of one board, the total so accumulated to be limited to a maximum of two hundred teaching days at any time.

29. Although a cumulative sick leave plan is designed primarily to provide protection for a teacher in the event of a prolonged period of illness, some boards have adopted the practice of paying a teacher at the time of his retirement a cash bonus based on the number of days of sick leave credit accumulated. We do not favour such a practice, commendable as it may seem to be to a local board; it is contrary to the fundamental purpose of a cumulative sick leave plan and should be discouraged. Accordingly we recommend

that, where a board of trustees pays to a teacher a cash bonus in lieu of accumulated sick leave, such payment be not approved for general legislative grant purposes.

SALARIES OF EDUCATIONAL PERSONNEL

30. By statute, a board of school trustees has authority to determine the amount of salary to be paid to each teacher in its employ. No provincial minimum salary or salary schedule is in effect, and, accordingly, while there is some degree of uniformity, and while a number of school boards have established salary schedules, salaries and annual increments vary from board to board.

31. Although the Minister has authority to approve the amount of salary on which general legislative grants will be paid, he does not exercise any direction or supervision over the amounts of salaries paid by school boards. Misunderstanding on this point has been frequent. Difficulty has arisen

because Section 112 (3) of *The Public Schools Act* states, in connection with the payment of the township grant to some rural school boards, “The sums so levied and collected shall be applied exclusively to teachers’ salaries, and payment of sums to boards under this section shall not be made unless the salary of the teacher for the year, in each case, is at least \$1,200.” This provision does not establish a minimum salary for teachers in elementary schools but is solely a condition of payment of the township grant to school boards. It is not, under the condition stipulated, applicable to boards of trustees of urban schools, separate schools, or schools in townships without municipal organization.

32. In tracing the history of teachers’ salaries, there seems to be little point in going back further than the beginning of the present century. A summary is given in Table 1 (by three-year intervals up to 1943-44) showing changes in the average salaries of teachers in Ontario from 1901-02 to 1947-48. The salaries are given separately for different types of secondary and elementary schools; thus a comparison for particular years may be made between the different types. It is interesting to note that over the whole period the average salaries of continuation school teachers were generally lower than those of male teachers in public elementary schools. Regardless of differences between salaries for different types of schools, however, the trends in increases and decreases have been roughly the same for all types of schools. The effect of economic conditions is clearly evident

TABLE 1
AVERAGE SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN ONTARIO, 1901-02 TO 1947-48

Year	Secondary Schools			Elementary Schools			
	Continuation Schools	High Schools and Collegiate Institutes	Vocational Schools	Public Schools		Roman Catholic Separate Schools	
				Men	Women	Men	Women
	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
1901-02		922		421	306	372	215
1904-05		967		485	335	384	234
1907-08	674	1,105		596	420	400	270
1910-11	801	1,259		711	483	527	325
1913-14	938	1,409		838	575	597	385
1916-17	949	1,448		957	626	654	410
1919-20	1,139	1,828	2,576	1,348	818	767	497
1922-23	1,603	2,262	2,603	1,644	1,117	902	708
1925-26	1,545	2,376	2,567	1,645	1,142	911	719
1928-29	1,570	2,438	2,576	1,703	1,155	908	748
1931-32	1,577	2,515	2,578	1,689	1,178	916	797
1934-35	1,242	2,191	2,371	1,382	1,061	838	729
1937-38	1,243	2,197	2,458	1,393	1,049	875	735
1940-41	1,280	2,229	2,511	1,482	1,109	971	758
1943-44	1,600	2,396	2,674	1,930	1,295	1,091	861
1944-45	1,713	2,464	2,747	2,023	1,355	1,113	908
1945-46	1,842	2,563	2,891	2,088	1,457	1,233	971
1946-47	1,961	2,632	2,945	2,124	1,538	1,315	1,014
1947-48	2,223	2,866	3,204	2,353	1,794	1,480	1,123

in the increases in salaries during the early years of the century and particularly after the First World War, in the decreases which occurred during the depression years, and in the relatively rapid increases following the end of the Second World War.

33. Salaries have increased rapidly during the last few years. The increases between 1947-48 and 1948-49 are known to be comparable to those between 1946-47 and 1947-48; and from the data available it seems clear that salaries for 1949-50 were substantially higher than those in 1948-49. The increases of recent years are, however, partly illusory in view of the increased cost of living; the dollar today is worth only about sixty cents in terms of its pre-war purchasing power. And, as might be expected, the greatest changes have taken place in the lower salary ranges. In 1946-47, over 60 per cent of all public school teachers received salaries of less than \$1,500 per year, whereas in 1948-49 only 11 per cent received less than \$1,500. A similar situation exists with reference to the salaries of secondary school teachers. In 1946-47 more than 20 per cent of these teachers received less than \$2,000 per annum; by 1948-49 the proportion was reduced to approximately 2 per cent.

34. In general, the average salary of principals is considerably higher than the average salary of assistant teachers. In 1948-49, for example, the average salary of principals of continuation schools was \$2,569 as compared with \$2,229 for assistant teachers. For "Collegiate Institutes, Composite Schools, and High Schools", the average salary of principals for the same year was \$3,729 as compared with an average of \$2,931 for all assistants. In vocational schools, the average reported for principals was \$4,900, while that for assistants was given as \$3,454.¹ In those cities where salary schedules are in effect, however, the salaries paid to principals are not much higher than the maxima set for male assistants in the same types of schools.

35. Average salaries vary also with the type of school area—rural, town, village, or city—in which the teacher is employed. In 1948-49, average salaries for public school teachers in different types of schools were reported as follows:

<i>Average Salaries of Public School Teachers,² 1948-49</i>	
<i>Type of School (Elementary)</i>	<i>Average Salary</i>
Ordinary rural schools	\$1,711
Towns and villages under 1,500 population	1,824
Towns and villages, population 1,500 and over	2,017
Large suburban and semi-urban schools	2,251
City schools	2,529

The average salary increases steadily as the size of the unit of administration increases—partly a reflection, no doubt, of the wealth and resources of the area. Similar differences appear in the case of secondary schools; but

¹*Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1948*, pp. 190-191.

²*Ibid.*, p. 164.

the only data available are for “Collegiate Institutes, Composite Schools, and High Schools”, and the average salaries reported below do not include those of principals:

*Average Salaries (Excluding Principals) in
Collegiate Institutes, Composite Schools, and High Schools,¹ 1948-49*

<i>Size of School</i>	<i>Average Salary</i>
Less than 5 teachers	\$2,314
5 to 9 teachers	2,438
10 to 20 teachers	2,719
Over 20 teachers	3,230

36. Assuming that efficiency increases as experience is gained, it might be concluded that teachers with greater experience would be in receipt of higher salaries. We conducted a special study of the relationship between salary and years of experience for teachers in different types of schools in Ontario, but found that, in general, the degree of relationship is not high. While there is a definite relationship in urban centres—more particularly for cities, which almost invariably operate under a salary schedule—such is not the case throughout the province. Most boards of school trustees have not adopted a salary schedule, and thus salaries of teachers only indirectly depend upon years of teaching experience. The position in secondary schools is, in this respect, better than that in elementary schools; there is a definite increase in salary as experience increases. No doubt this is partly due to the fact that a large proportion of secondary schools are in urban centres where salary schedules have been adopted. In elementary schools, on the other hand, the salary received is more closely related to the number of teachers under the jurisdiction of the board—a measure of the size and wealth of the administrative unit—than to years of experience. Unless an elementary school teacher can secure a position in a large town or city school, his chances of receiving regular annual increases in salary are slight. But, even in secondary schools, within each of the years-of-experience groups the range of salaries is wide.

37. There is little evidence of regularity in the salary pattern throughout the province. In this connection, two facts are clearly indicated by this study; in the first place, the salaries paid to teachers are fixed by the employing board without reference to any common scale; in the second, the central authority exercises little or no control over the amount of salaries.

38. A salary differential exists as between men and women, although this may be due in part to longer service by men. In 1947-48, for example, in public schools the average salary paid to male teachers was \$2,353, and to female teachers, \$1,794; for collegiate institutes and high schools, the figures were \$2,938 and \$2,643; for continuation schools, they were \$2,173 and \$2,042; and for vocational schools, they were \$3,251 and \$2,975.²

¹*Ibid.*, p. 190.

²*Ibid.*, p. 120.

39. Salaries of teachers in Roman Catholic separate schools are, on the average, lower than those of teachers in public schools. In 1947-48, the average salary paid to a male teacher in a Roman Catholic separate school was \$1,480 as compared with \$2,353 for a male teacher in a public school; and, for women teachers, average salaries were \$1,123 in Roman Catholic separate schools and \$1,794 in public schools. To some extent, these differences are accounted for by the fact that many teachers in Roman Catholic separate schools are members of a religious order or community. The distribution of teachers' salaries in Roman Catholic separate schools for 1947-48 is given in Table 2. The salaries of lay and religious teachers are shown separately. It will be seen that the salaries paid to religious teachers are, with but few exceptions, much lower than those paid to lay teachers. Salaries paid to teachers who are members of a religious order or community appear to be purely nominal; most of them are lower than the lowest salary paid to lay teachers. It is obvious that there is a fundamental difference between the bases on which the salaries of teachers in these two groups are determined.¹

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS' SALARIES
ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOLS, 1947-48

<i>Salary Groups</i>	<i>Lay Teachers</i>	<i>Religious Teachers</i>
\$		
2,650 - 2,749	3	
2,550 - 2,649		1
2,450 - 2,549	2	
2,350 - 2,449	4	
2,250 - 2,349	8	
2,150 - 2,249	6	2
2,050 - 2,149	18	1
1,950 - 2,049	24	2
1,850 - 1,949	38	3
1,750 - 1,849	90	2
1,650 - 1,749	91	8
1,550 - 1,649	270	8
1,450 - 1,549	357	27
1,350 - 1,449	282	12
1,250 - 1,349	308	45
1,150 - 1,249	207	73
1,050 - 1,149	69	80
950 - 1,049	46	145
850 - 949	14	209
750 - 849	5	418
650 - 749		319
550 - 649		263
450 - 549		23
350 - 449		8
TOTAL	1,842	1,649
AVERAGE SALARY	1,454	851

¹For a further discussion of salaries of teachers in Roman Catholic separate schools, see Chapter XIX.

40. To secure efficiency in a system of education, conditions of service must be so moulded that men and women of culture will enter, and remain in, the teaching profession. Reward in the form of salaries constitutes only one factor affecting these conditions, but it exerts a powerful influence. A teacher's remuneration must be sufficient to permit him to enjoy satisfactory living conditions and to make it possible for him to improve his personal, academic, and professional qualifications through study, travel, and social contacts.

41. An examination of wages and salaries in other occupations and professions in Ontario shows that salaries of teachers compare favourably with those paid for service in professions and occupations requiring comparable training. But this conclusion must be qualified in one important respect: in the teaching profession there is not the same opportunity to advance to high-salaried positions. The initial salary paid to teachers upon their entry to the profession is relatively high in comparison with that paid to experienced teachers and to persons in administrative and supervisory positions in education. Salaries paid to inexperienced teachers have at least kept pace with the increased cost of living and are, with but few exceptions, higher than the initial salaries or wages paid to persons with comparable training in other professions and in industry and commerce.

42. On the other hand, regular increments in salary as experience is gained are the exception rather than the rule; and there is reason to believe that salaries paid to experienced teachers do not truly reflect efficiency, effort, and services rendered. In view of the nature of the work involved, the qualities of leadership required, and the responsibilities assumed and discharged, salaries paid to those in senior positions are far too low, whether in comparison with salaries paid to other teachers or with those received by those in positions of comparable authority and responsibility in other occupations. It is not uncommon, for example, to find that persons in senior administrative and supervisory positions in education receive lower salaries than those over whom in the course of their duties they exercise supervision. This is particularly true of officials of the Department of Education, who are frequently paid salaries lower than those paid by local boards of school trustees to principals and supervisory and administrative officials. Moreover, senior positions should carry salaries reasonably comparable with those offered in other fields, so that education may possess the necessary financial lure to encourage able individuals to remain in, and to enter, the profession.

43. In many of the other provinces of Canada and in other countries, minimum salaries for teachers, or schedules of fixed or minimum salaries, are set by the central authority. In England and Scotland, for example, a local education authority must pay salaries in accordance with a fixed scale, including annual increments. In other places, the central authority may specify a schedule of minimum salaries, including annual increments, which,

however, may be exceeded by a local education authority at its discretion. More commonly, the central authority fixes a minimum salary, or set of minimum salaries, dependent upon teaching certificate or position held, but does not require the payment of annual or other increments. In Ontario, minimum salaries for teachers or schedules of fixed or minimum salaries have not been established by the central authority.

44. Setting a minimum salary will at best fix only a common level below which salaries may not fall; more generally, it will affect only salaries paid to beginners, leaving the problem of other salaries untouched. Schedules of salaries, on the other hand, automatically include minima and possess other advantages. On the whole, some type of salary schedule is to be preferred.

45. We do not favour the establishment of a provincial schedule of fixed salaries. It would remove initiative from boards of school trustees, and it would prevent desirable and healthy competition for the services of outstanding teachers. Further, by imposing central control over the selection and payment of teachers—one of the most important duties of local education authorities—it would mean an abrupt break with the established practices and traditions of the province. In view of the varying conditions in different parts of the province, the central authority should do no more than establish a provincial schedule of minimum salaries, including a specified number of annual increments. Accordingly we recommend

(a) *that the Minister of Education establish a provincial schedule of minimum salaries;*

(b) *that the schedule include a specified number of annual increments.*

46. A provincial schedule of minimum salaries should be based on the teaching certificate required for the position and upon years of experience. It would be impracticable for the central authority to apply other standards, such as merit or efficiency, throughout the province. According to our proposals for the certification of teachers, the provincial schedule will consist of three scales of minimum salaries, applicable to teachers holding Elementary School, Secondary School, and Junior College Teaching Certificates, respectively. The appropriate scale will be determined by *preparation* or *qualifications*, not by the *position* held by the teacher. There should be no differentiation in the provincial schedule on the basis of sex, marital status, number of dependents, or other factors. Experience gained in any publicly supported school should receive full recognition in the annual increments included in the schedule. It will be a uniform schedule of minimum salaries.

47. We recommend

(a) *that the Minister of Education empower the proposed Central Advisory Council to establish a committee, to be composed of representatives of teachers, local education authorities, and the Depart-*

ment of Education, to devise and recommend to the Minister, from time to time, a provincial schedule of minimum salaries based upon teaching certificates and experience;

- (b) that a local education authority be required to pay to teachers (except to those in Roman Catholic separate schools who are members of a religious order or community), according to teaching certificate held and experience, salaries at least equal to those specified in the provincial schedule.

48. To indicate the type of provincial schedule of minimum salaries we propose, an illustration is given below:

ILLUSTRATIVE PROVINCIAL SCHEDULE OF MINIMUM SALARIES^a

Year of Service	SCALES		
	Elementary School Teaching Certificate	Secondary School Teaching Certificate	Junior College Teaching Certificate
1	\$1,600	\$2,200	\$2,500
2	1,700	2,350	2,650
3	1,800	2,500	2,800
4	1,900	2,650	2,950
5	2,000	2,800	3,100
6	2,100	2,950	3,250

^a(1) In cases of inefficiency, an increment may be temporarily withheld by the local education authority.

(2) At the discretion of the employing authority, a leave of absence to qualify for a higher certificate may be counted as teaching experience in elementary or secondary schools.

(3) Salaries of teachers in the employ of education authorities at the time the scales are introduced should not be reduced by reason of such introduction.

(4) Teachers holding a Second Class, a Third Class, or a lower grade teaching certificate valid in Ontario should be deemed to hold an Elementary School Teaching Certificate for purposes of this schedule.

(5) Persons teaching on Letters of Permission may be employed at salaries \$400 below those specified.

(6) The secondary school scale is not applicable to teachers who are granted permission to teach in a secondary school but do not hold a Secondary School Teaching Certificate.

49. The minimum salaries of the provincial schedule will form a “floor”, below which salaries of teachers (except those in Roman Catholic separate schools who are members of a religious order or community) may not fall. There is no “ceiling”; salaries exceeding those specified may be paid at the discretion of a local education authority. No control need be exercised by the central authority, other than enforcement of the statutory requirement that salaries must not be less than the minima specified in the provincial schedule.

50. The suggested provincial schedule provides for minimum salaries only for the first six years of teaching experience. But boards of school trustees will undoubtedly wish to have salary schedules for their employees which are applicable to all years of service. With this desire we are in full

sympathy. Indeed, we are of opinion that each local education authority in the reorganized educational system should be required to establish by by-laws a local salary schedule for teachers appointed to its permanent staff.

51. After careful consideration, we have concluded that, although we could prepare a general salary schedule for the province which might be reasonably satisfactory at present, it would be better not to do so but to express our general views in an illustrative salary schedule incorporating the provincial schedule of minimum salaries. Salary schedules must be adaptable to varying conditions within the province from year to year and from place to place. A local school board is the only authority in a position to prepare a schedule suited to local conditions, and to vary it easily and appropriately from time to time as circumstances warrant.

52. Where local salary schedules for teachers are in effect in Ontario, length of service is the usual basis for promotion, and annual increments are given until a maximum is reached. Above a basic minimum, the amount of salary should, ideally, depend upon merit. Length of service is not necessarily an accurate measure of efficiency. In the opinions expressed to us, a feeling was apparent that in the adjustment of salaries greater recognition should be given to merit. With this we agree; and we have provided in our illustrative local schedule for promotions based upon a combination of years of experience and merit. We appreciate that teaching efficiency is difficult to assess and that no device yet developed affords an adequate and valid measure. But, in our opinion, a local education authority can, with some justification, accept the reasoned judgment of its supervisory officials, particularly if our "Illustrative Conditions of Promotion" are followed.

53. The illustrative local salary schedule is divided into two parts: a *Basic Salary Scale*, with salaries equal in amount to those of the provincial schedule of minimum salaries; and a *Promotional Salary Scale*, divided into four *Levels*, in which salaries are determined according to experience and merit, subject to the conditions of promotion specified in the attached notes. We recommend

- (a) *that each local education authority be required to establish and maintain a salary schedule for all teachers appointed to the permanent staff of the schools under its jurisdiction;*
- (b) *that such salary schedules be based upon experience, qualifications, teaching efficiency, and other factors.*¹

¹See "Illustrative Conditions of Promotion" which follow.

54. ILLUSTRATIVE LOCAL SALARY SCHEDULE

Year of Service	Salary Level	SCALES		
		Elementary School Teaching Certificate	Secondary School Teaching Certificate	Junior College Teaching Certificate
		Basic Salary Scales ^a		
1	Provincial Schedule of Minimum Salaries }	\$1,600	\$2,200	\$2,500
2		1,700	2,350	2,650
3		1,800	2,500	2,800
4		1,900	2,650	2,950
5		2,000	2,800	3,100
6		2,100	2,950	3,250
		Promotional Salary Scales		
7	Salary Level I	2,200	3,100	3,400
8		2,300	3,250	3,550
9		2,400	3,400	3,700
10	Salary Level II	2,600	3,700	4,000
11		2,600	3,700	4,000
12		2,600	3,700	4,000
13	Salary Level III	2,800	4,000	4,300
14		2,800	4,000	4,300
15		2,800	4,000	4,300
16 and Over	Salary Level IV	3,000	4,300	4,600

^aSee paragraphs 48 and 49, above.

Illustrative Conditions of Promotion

Beyond the *Basic Salary Scales*, salaries should be paid by a local education authority within four *Levels*, according to merit as determined in consultation with supervisory officials, and subject to the following conditions:

(1) Each local education authority should formulate and adopt regulations governing promotions to each *Salary Level*.

(2) Where the quality of service is at least satisfactory and the number of years of experience of teachers in the employ of a local education authority warrants, there should be a specified percentage of teachers within each *Level* of each scale. We suggest the following distribution for the average education authority:

Level	Percentage of Teachers
Provincial Schedule	55
Salary Level I	20
Salary Level II	12
Salary Level III	8
Salary Level IV	5

For a particular area, the percentage of teachers within each *Salary Level* may be less or greater than the proportion suggested.

(3) Promotions to higher *Salary Levels* should be based on the merit of the teacher and take into consideration, among other things:

- (a) possession of a permanent certificate and the specified years of service;
- (b) exceptional service, in relation to opportunity
 - (i) primarily, within the classroom,
 - (ii) secondarily, in co-curricular activities;
- (c) improvement in quality of service through
 - (i) academic or professional education beyond that required for the position,
 - (ii) experience gained in activities not directly associated with the school.

(4) Salaries of teachers of special-education schools and classes (e.g., teachers of blind or deaf children) should, in view of the special qualifications and training required, be at least \$300 higher than those of teachers in equivalent positions in other elementary or secondary schools.

(5) Teachers in positions requiring special qualifications and preparation (e.g., kindergarten and primary specialists) should receive salaries at least \$200 higher than those specified in the illustrative schedule.

(6) Principals, heads of departments, and those in supervisory positions within a school should receive salaries substantially higher than those specified in the illustrative schedule; they should be based on the additional responsibilities assumed.

55. With regard to salaries of personnel other than teachers in the employ of local education authorities, we do not deem it necessary to recommend the establishment by statute of a provincial schedule of minimum salaries. Although salaries or wages of clerical and maintenance staffs should be comparable to those paid to others in equivalent positions in industry and commerce, it would be impracticable to establish a provincial schedule, since the qualifications of such personnel are determined locally. We favour the establishment of local salary schedules for such employees of boards of school trustees. Accordingly, we recommend

that a local education authority be required to establish salary schedules for clerical and maintenance staff in its employ.

56. Under our proposed reorganization of the administration and supervision of education, a local education authority may, under certain conditions, employ a staff of supervisory and administrative officials. Many boards will elect to do so; in other cases, the supervision of instruction and some business administration will continue to be a function of officials of the Department of Education. We do not see fit to make specific recommendations in regard to salary schedules for local supervisory and administrative officials. It is our duty, however, to emphasize the fact that much of the responsibility for the success of the board's educational endeavours will rest on such officials. They will be the leaders in education and should be given generous treatment in the matter of salaries. We recommend

that local supervisory and administrative officials be paid salaries substantially higher than those paid to other employees over whom in the normal course of their duties they exercise supervision.

57. With regard to the salaries of members of the teaching staffs of provincial technical institutes and schools for the blind or deaf,¹ we recommend²

- (a) *that provincial salary schedules be established for members of the teaching staff of provincial technical institutes, with amounts of salaries not less than those proposed in our illustrative local salary schedule for teachers holding a Junior College Teaching Certificate;*
- (b) *that provincial salary schedules be established for members of the teaching staff of the Ontario School for the Blind and the Ontario School for the Deaf, with amounts of salaries at least \$300 higher than those in our illustrative local salary schedule for teachers in elementary and secondary schools.*

SUPERANNUATION OF EDUCATIONAL PERSONNEL

58. The first pension fund for teachers in Upper Canada was known as the Ryerson Pension Fund. Under *The Upper Canada Supplementary School Act*³ of 1853, provision was made for a grant not exceeding £500 per annum for the support of "superannuated or worn out Common School Teachers in Upper Canada . . ." To be eligible for a pension, the teacher had to have been a contributor to the Fund at the rate of £1 per annum and, at the time of his retirement, had to furnish satisfactory proof to the Council of Public Instruction of inability to continue teaching owing to age or loss of health. The pension was fixed at an amount not exceeding the rate of "One Pound Ten Shillings for each year that such Teacher shall have taught a Common School in Upper Canada." The total amounts appropriated annually by the Legislature for this purpose were later increased to \$4,000 and then to \$6,000.

59. Under *An Act to Improve the Common and Grammar Schools of the Province of Ontario*⁴ of 1871, it was enacted that each male teacher of a public school holding a certificate of qualification was required to pay \$4 annually to the Fund and each female public school teacher was permitted to pay a like sum. Permission to contribute to, and receive benefits from, the Fund was restricted under the first Act to teachers of common schools and, under the Act of 1871, to teachers of public schools. Three years later, in *An Act to Amend and Consolidate the Public School Law*⁵ of 1874, the privileges of the Fund were extended to teachers of high schools, but compulsory contributions applied only to male teachers of public schools who held certificates of qualification under the school Act. Contributions were fixed at a minimum of \$4 annually. Every teacher who

¹These employees are civil servants.

²For our recommendations with reference to salaries of supervisory officials of the Department of Education, see Chapter XIV.

³16 & 17 Vict., Ch. 185, S.P.C.

⁴34 Vict., Ch. 33, S.O.

⁵37 Vict., Ch. 28, S.O.

contributed to the Fund might, on attaining the age of 60 years, receive on retirement an allowance at the rate of \$6 per annum for each year of service as a teacher in Upper Canada or Ontario; but, to obtain an allowance, he had to furnish to the Council of Public Instruction evidence of good moral character, of age, and of length of service as a public or high school teacher. Provision was also made for a disability pension, with benefits on the same basis as those for service pensions, for those under 60 years of age who were unable to continue teaching. The pension payable was supplemented at the rate of \$1 per annum for each year of service for a teacher who held a First or Second Class provincial teaching certificate or who was the headmaster of a high school or collegiate institute. Teachers withdrawing from the profession before becoming entitled to a pension were allowed to claim one-half of the sums paid into the Fund, and, in the event of the death of a teacher in service, the wife, husband, or other legal representative was entitled to receive the full amount which had been paid in by the teacher, with interest at the rate of 7 per cent per annum.

60. In 1885 benefits were restricted to those already contributing. From that date to 1917, no other teachers had the advantage of a pension fund, unless, after 1904, they taught in an area where a local pension scheme had been set up by the school board. During the years 1885 to 1917, teachers made repeated attempts to have a provincial pension scheme established. These efforts culminated in the presentation of their case to the Premier and Cabinet by a large deputation on March 9, 1917. Their goal was attained on April 1, 1917, when a Teachers' and Inspectors' Superannuation Fund was established and came into force.

61. Under the 1917 *Teachers' and Inspectors' Superannuation Act*, a teacher or inspector who had been a contributor to the Ryerson Pension Fund might elect to remain in that Fund¹ or to become a contributor to the new Fund. Every teacher and inspector in Ontario employed within the meaning of *The Teachers' and Inspectors' Superannuation Act* of 1917 was required to contribute 2.5 per cent of his salary to the Fund; and the Treasurer of Ontario placed to the credit of the Fund sums equal to those contributed by the teachers and inspectors. Local pension schemes established by school boards were taken over by the government under the Act, and provision was made for the protection of those who had been contributors and of those who had been retired and were on pension. In such cases, the corporation or board which had established such a scheme for its own teachers was required to pay into the Fund a sum actuarially sufficient to provide for the pension rights granted to its employees. Benefits payable under the new Fund were extended to those employed before April, 1917, with the proviso that years of employment prior to April 1st, 1917, were,

¹There are no pensioners on the Ryerson Fund today, although a refund has occasionally been made to an aged teacher or to an estate.

for pension purposes, to be counted as half-years of employment. Benefits payable to a teacher under the Act included an annual allowance on retirement after 40 years' service, calculated on the basis of one-sixtieth of his average salary during the last ten years multiplied by the number of years during which he was employed, and a reduced pension after 30 years of service. Provision was also made for the payment of an allowance in case of retirement owing to ill health after at least 15 years of service. The Act provided, in the event of the death of a teacher before retirement, for repayment to his personal representatives of the total amount contributed with interest at 5 per cent.

62. Amendments to the Act were made from time to time to increase benefits and to safeguard further the stability of the Fund. For example, the rate of contribution was increased from 2.5 per cent to 4 per cent. But the principles upon which the Act was based remained unchanged. In 1945 the Act was amended to increase benefits generally. Under the 1946 Act, the Fund was set up on the basis of a joint contributory pool plan, with the government contributing an amount equal to the contributions of the teachers. Teachers in schools under the jurisdiction of the Department of Education and inspectors employed by urban boards of school trustees who were not contributors to the Public Service Superannuation Fund contributed to the Teachers' and Inspectors' Fund at the rate of 4 per cent of salary. The Fund was administered by a Commission consisting of seven members—an actuary and three members appointed triennially by the Minister of Education, and three members elected by the contributors to the Fund to serve for three-year terms.

63. The stability of the Fund was safeguarded by the care taken in granting disability pensions (partial and total), by an annual audit, and by a triennial actuarial investigation. Since it was a pool Fund, the contributions and benefits were determined from time to time in accordance with the conditions of the Fund. The actuarial principle which applied was that there must be an equilibrium for each generation of teachers between contributions and benefits paid. From the beginning, the Fund was subject to an actuarial deficit or accrued liability, since benefits were made payable in 1917 to teachers who had not contributed during their teaching service prior to that year, and because increased benefits were granted from time to time although correspondingly higher contributions had not been paid during the service life of the teachers already in the Fund. In June, 1948, the actuarial deficit was approximately \$11,000,000, but the Fund was in a strong financial position as it had assets of approximately \$50,000,000.

64. The sources of revenue for the Fund consisted of contributions from teachers and from the Provincial Government, interest on investments, retention in the Fund of government contributions made on behalf of teachers who withdrew their contributions, and retention in the Fund of con-

tributions made by members who left the profession with less than five years of service and by the government on their behalf. Benefits payable under the 1946 Act included:

- (1) "A" Pension: Granted to a contributor after 36 or more years of teaching service, provided the teacher was 62 years of age if female, or 65 if male, or to any teacher without regard to age after 40 years of service at the time of retirement. The minimum pension was \$500, and the maximum \$1,500, calculated on the average salary for all years of service.
- (2) "B" Pension: Granted to contributors with between 30 and 36 years of teaching service. The minimum was \$7.00 per year for each year of service.
- (3) "C" Pension: Granted in the event of total and permanent disability following teaching service of 15 or more years.
- (4) "CB" Pension: Granted, following 15 or more years of teaching service, in the event of a physical or mental disability rendering the teacher incapable of being further employed as a teacher.
- (5) Refund of contributions with interest under specified conditions.

65. In our study of the provisions for the superannuation of teachers, a careful investigation was made of pension plans for teachers in other provinces and countries and also for other groups of employees in Ontario. The pension plans of the University of Toronto and the Ontario Public Service received special attention, since their employees' conditions of service are in many respects similar to those of the teaching profession. On the basis of our findings, we drafted a comprehensive teachers' superannuation plan. In 1949, however, *The Teachers' Superannuation Act* was passed by the Legislature, effective April 1, 1949, replacing *The Teachers' and Inspectors' Superannuation Act, 1946*, and *The Teachers' and Inspectors' Superannuation Act, 1948*. We were pleased to note that it gave effect, to a large extent, to the proposals which we had drafted. Thus, in place of the plan which we had drafted, we shall advance only certain comments and such recommendations for the amendment of the 1949 Act as seem advisable.

66. A major change with respect to contributions was made in the Act of 1949. The teacher's contribution rate was raised from 4 to 6 per cent of salary, although the government contribution remained at 4 per cent, thus amounting to two-thirds of the total sum contributed by teachers. Accordingly, at present, the Fund receives annually an amount equal to 10 per cent of all salaries paid to teachers.

67. A change in policy was effected through the conversion from a pool Fund on an actuarial basis to a pool Fund in which the cash "deficiency" in any year is to be met from the Consolidated Revenue Fund. Section 8 of the 1949 Act is as follows: "When the payments into the fund in any year are insufficient to make the required payments out of the fund,

the deficiency shall be made up out of the Consolidated Revenue Fund." Since deficiencies are to be met annually from the Consolidated Revenue Fund, the capital funds will not be depleted.

68. Although many of the benefits payable under the 1946 and earlier Acts were continued in the 1949 Act, a number of changes were made. In the first place, eligibility for the "A" pension was set at a minimum age of 62 years for teachers with at least 35 years of service credit, irrespective of sex. Annual disability allowances were materially increased. A new type of pension was made available for teachers with 25 or more (but less than 30) years' service who had attained age 62 and had ceased to be employed. In all these cases, the minimum allowance was raised to \$600 a year.

69. The basis for the computation of pensions was revised. The old basis was one-sixtieth of the whole average salary for each "count year" of service (with an upper limit of 60 per cent of such average salary), permitting a maximum of \$1,500. The new basis was one-fiftieth of the average salary of the last 15 years' service, with an upper limit of 70 per cent of such average salary, permitting a new maximum pension of \$3,000.

70. A new provision in the Act was a dependents' pension for the widow and children of a male pensioner or the widow and children of a male teacher with at least 15 years' teaching credit. Similar pensions were made available for dependent children, or the wholly dependent widower, of a female teacher. The dependents' pension was set, in the case of a pensioner, at one-half the pension and, in the case of death of a teacher in service, at one-half the allowance which would have been payable to the teacher.

71. The provisions in regard to refund of contributions were continued, except for the cancellation of the 4.75 per cent interest charge effective, under the former Act, upon repayment to the Fund by a teacher who had previously withdrawn his contributions.

72. *The Consolidated Public School Act of 1874*¹ made provision for supplementing pensions received by teachers under the Ryerson Fund. The Act stated that "Such pension may be supplemented out of local funds by any Municipal Council, Public or High School Board or Board of Education, at its pleasure". At present, boards of school trustees are permitted to supplement teachers' pensions. Under Section 89 (*t*) of *The Public Schools Act*, for example, the board has power "to supplement out of school funds, as deemed expedient, any allowance payable under this Act to superannuated teachers." Section 129 of the same Act empowers a board, under certain conditions, to grant a teacher, inspector, officer, or other employee of the board "an annual allowance not exceeding the salary which he was receiving at the time of retirement", or to "make a grant to him by way of gratuity of a sum not exceeding the present value of such annual allowance . . ."

73. Members of the Superannuation Commission should be commended for their endeavours, over the years, to safeguard the stability of the Fund.

¹37 Vict., Ch. 28, S.O.

For example, the steadily increasing capital fund provides security for contributors and yields considerable revenue to the Fund in interest paid by the government. No real criticism of the work of the Superannuation Commission was brought to our attention. The general feeling appears to be that its members have discharged their duties conscientiously and efficiently.

74. Contributors to the present Fund should realize that the scheme is made possible largely by the contributions of the Provincial Government, in particular by the relatively high rate of interest on moneys invested with the government on behalf of the Fund. More than half the Fund's annual revenue is obtained from the provincial treasury; without such assistance, the present scale of benefits would have to be drastically reduced. The taxpayers of the province are largely responsible for the present generous scale of benefits.

75. The Fund, as we have stated, was originally established on a "pool" rather than on an "individual contract" basis. In our opinion, this was a fundamental weakness. Contributions from members and from the government on their behalf were pooled, and benefits were paid out of the total Fund without due regard to the relationship between the benefits payable to, and the contributions paid by, individual members. The Fund began operations with an actuarial deficit of more than \$4,500,000. In effect, there have been a number of pool Funds, each by its nature subject to an actuarial deficit. Furthermore, since the funds are pooled, some of the contributing members must pay, in part at least, for benefits received, or to be received, by other members.

76. An individual contract plan possesses flexibility and has other advantages not possible in the case of a pool Fund. But, two reasons render such a plan impracticable at the present time: on the one hand, benefits payable under *The Teachers' Superannuation Act, 1949*, have been greatly increased; on the other, the Government of Canada has reduced considerably the interest rates applicable to annuities purchased. The latter change means that annuities payable would not be adequate unless a contribution exceeding a reasonable proportion of his salary were required of each member of the Fund. Accordingly, despite our objections to a pool Fund, which we feel are still valid with reference to the Fund established by the 1949 Act, we desire to support, subject to the general recommendations and suggestions which follow, the provisions of *The Teachers' Superannuation Act, 1949*.

77. Section 5 (3) of the 1949 Act reads: "There shall be a triennial actuarial valuation of the fund, the next such valuation to be as of the 1st day of July, 1951, but the Minister may direct an additional valuation to be made at any time." As the Fund is not constituted on an actuarial basis, there is, in our opinion, no need for a triennial actuarial valuation. We recommend

that Section 5 (3) of The Teachers' Superannuation Act, 1949, be amended to provide for actuarial valuations at the discretion of the Minister of Education.

78. Section 8 of the Act states: "When the payments into the fund in any year are insufficient to make the required payments out of the fund, the deficiency shall be made up out of the Consolidated Revenue Fund." With reference to this section of the Act, the "Tenth Report of the Actuary on the Condition of the Teachers' Superannuation Fund" of June 30, 1948, states:

This is of fundamental importance to the teachers of the Province. In effect the Legislature has expressed an over-all guarantee to supply monies when needed in years to come, about thirty years hence as nearly as we can estimate. While this promise may be justifiable on the ground that the Government and the teaching profession will both be in operation at that time, it must be pointed out that the Legislature has power to change the Act in its wisdom at any time, especially if it finds the benefit load too heavy at a future date, the more so if at that time there is a sizable fund on hand belonging to surviving contributors. A pension fund covering public servants is subject to the same vicissitudes as a privately constituted fund. Unless appropriate provision is currently made for the future promises to the present teaching body, the balance of these costs ultimately is left to future generations, who in turn may find the accumulated liabilities too heavy to bear. This ends in a reduction of benefits, which is usually borne by the subsequent pensioners who have paid in contributions all that the law has required of them throughout their teaching service.

79. In our opinion, it is imperative that the Fund be on an actuarially sound basis. Since September 1, 1949, teachers have been required to pay 6 per cent of their salaries as an annual contribution; but the government contributes only an amount equal to two-thirds of the sums contributed by teachers. Our investigations have convinced us that the aggregate 10 per cent contribution rate is insufficient to provide the benefits set forth. Eventually, unless some change is made, action by the government under Section 8 will be required. In our opinion, the government should immediately begin to contribute annually an amount sufficient, together with other contributions and income, to guarantee that the Fund will be on a sound actuarial basis. We therefore recommend

that Sections 8 and 22 of The Teachers' Superannuation Act, 1949, be amended to make it possible to have the Fund on a sound actuarial basis.

80. Section 17 of the Act states:

(1) Every person who is employed shall contribute to the Fund six per centum of his salary.

(2) Where the annual rate of salary is less than \$1,000 it shall, for the purposes of this section, be deemed to be at the annual rate of \$1,000.

(3) In this section "salary" includes cost of living or other bonus but does not include any additional remuneration for special services performed at evening classes.

(4) Where a person receives part of his salary in respect of employment of a type prescribed in subclauses i to vii of clause (d) of section 1 and part of his salary in respect of other employment, for the purposes of this Act,—

(a) his salary shall be deemed to be only the amount of the salary that he receives in respect of such prescribed employment; and

(b) he shall be given credit for only that portion of each school year that bears the same proportion to the school year as the portion of his salary that he receives in respect of such prescribed employment bears to his total salary for such year.

In these subsections, the use of the terms “salary” and “annual rate of salary” is open to misinterpretation. We recommend

that Subsections (1), (2), (3), and (4) of Section 17 of The Teachers’ Superannuation Act, 1949, be amended to clarify the use of the terms “salary” and “annual rate of salary”.

81. While Section 17 (4) (b) of the Act is a laudable attempt to ensure that benefits received are proportional to contributions and services rendered, the method of expression is open to misinterpretation. We recommend

that Subsection (4) (b) of Section 17 of The Teachers’ Superannuation Act, 1949, be amended to require that credit for service be based upon the proportion the period of prescribed employment bears to the period of employment of a full-time teacher engaged in a similar position.

82. Section 29 of the Act deals with retirement owing to permanent disability as a teacher. Subsection (2) reads as follows:

(2) The amount of such allowance shall be computed in the manner prescribed by subsection 2 of section 24 but shall be subject to such reduction as may be prescribed by the regulations having regard to the length of service and to the age of the applicant, provided that no such allowance shall be less than \$600 or more than \$3,000.

The minimum of \$600 specified is, in our opinion, just and fair in the event of permanent disability rendering the teacher incapable of further earning his livelihood, as contemplated under Section 28, but too high in the event of permanent disability rendering the teacher incapable only of being further employed as a teacher or inspector. We recommend

that Subsection (2) of Section 29 of The Teachers’ Superannuation Act, 1949, be amended to read “provided that no such allowance shall be less than \$420 or more than \$3,000.”

83. Section 31 of the Act relates to dependents’ allowances. Subsections (1) (a) and (b) read:

(1) Where a male person who has credit in the fund for fifteen or more years dies while employed or within two years after ceasing to be employed on account of ill-health, or where a male person who is in receipt of an allowance dies,—

(a) leaving a widow, a dependent’s allowance of an amount equal to,
 (i) one-half of the allowance computed in the manner prescribed in subsection 2 of section 24, but based on the person’s credit in the fund at the time of his death, or

- (ii) one-half of the allowance that the person was receiving at the time of his death,

as the case may be, shall be paid to his widow during her lifetime or during her widowhood, and where the widow dies or marries leaving a child or children who at the date of her death or marriage is or are under the age of eighteen years, a dependent's allowance of an amount equal to that paid to the widow shall be paid to the child or children until such age is attained; or

(b) leaving no widow but leaving a child or children under the age of eighteen years, a dependent's allowance of an amount equal to,

- (i) one-half of the allowance computed in the manner prescribed in subsection 2 of section 24 but based on the person's credit in the fund at the time of his death, or

- (ii) one-half of the allowance that the person was receiving at the date of his death,

as the case may be, shall be paid to such child or children until such age is attained.

The intent of these subsections with reference to the amount of the payment of allowances to a child or children is not clear. We recommend

that Sections 31 (1) (a) and (b) of The Teachers' Superannuation Act, 1949, be amended to make clear that the total amount paid in allowances to children under this Section is not greater than the amount paid, or which would have been paid, to the widow or widower.

84. Subsection (6) of Section 31 of the Act reads: "The minimum payment under this section shall be at the rate of \$300 per annum."

We are of opinion that the amount specified as the minimum payment is too low. We recommend

that Subsection (6) of Section 31 of The Teachers' Superannuation Act, 1949, be amended to read: "The minimum payment under this section shall be at the rate of \$360 per annum".

85. Subsection (1) of Section 46 of the Act reads:

(1) A person who has been employed for five or more school years and ceases to be employed by withdrawing from the profession shall be entitled to a refund of an amount equal to the whole of his contributions to the fund with interest at the rate of one and one-half per centum per annum compounded half-yearly from the date of cessation of employment to the 31st day of March, 1949, but no such refund shall be made until three months have elapsed after the date upon which the person ceased to be employed.

We recommend

that Subsection (1) of Section 46 of The Teachers' Superannuation Act, 1949, be amended to delete the words "to the 31st day of March, 1949".

86. We further recommend

that, subject to the recommendations recorded above, The Teachers' Superannuation Act, 1949, be continued.

87. We had planned to recommend that boards of school trustees be encouraged to establish superannuation plans for non-teaching full-time employees, and that payments made by boards of school trustees on behalf of such superannuation plans be recognized as part of approved cost for

general legislative grant purposes. Amendments made in 1950 to the various school Acts have made specific provision for the establishment and maintenance by a board of school trustees of a pension plan for non-teaching employees. The permissive legislation appears to us to be satisfactory.

ORGANIZATIONS, CONVENTIONS, GROUP MEETINGS, AND PUBLICATIONS

The Teaching Profession Act, 1944

88. Since 1910 one of the most important developments affecting the status of the teacher has been the growth of professional associations. Five separate groups—the Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation, the Federation of Women Teachers' Associations of Ontario, the Ontario Public School Men Teachers' Federation, L'Association de l'Enseignement Française de l'Ontario, and the Ontario English Catholic Teachers' Association—were originally voluntary organizations. In 1944 they agreed to unite, and were legally federated under the Teaching Profession Act (*An Act to Provide for the Establishment of the Ontario Teachers' Federation*).

89. The objects of the Federation, as set forth in the Act, are: to promote and advance the cause of education; to raise the status of the teaching profession; to promote and advance the interests of teachers and to secure conditions which will make possible the best professional service; to arouse and increase public interest in educational affairs; and to co-operate with other teachers' organizations throughout the world having the same or like objects. The former voluntary federations and associations remain, as far as possible, autonomous bodies, governed by their own constitutions.

90. The governing body of the Federation, the board of governors, is composed of representatives elected by the five affiliated bodies. It elects an executive from among its members to carry out the policies determined by the board, and appoints a secretary. The secretary is a full-time paid official of the Federation. Suggestions on matters of policy are forwarded by the affiliated bodies to the board of governors for approval, either on the initiative of the affiliate itself, or upon the request of the board. Thus, while policy is determined by the board of governors, it is largely initiated and developed through the affiliated bodies.

91. With certain exceptions set forth in the Act, membership in the Federation is compulsory for teachers who are under contract to teach in a school of the provincial system. A fee, fixed by regulation under the Act, is deducted by the employing board of school trustees and forwarded to the treasurer of the Federation. Provision is also made for voluntary membership, under certain conditions, of "persons who are not members thereof".¹ Every student-teacher in a normal school or in the Ontario College of Education must become an associate member.

¹*The Teaching Profession Amendment Act, 14 Geo. VI, 1950.*

92. Subject to the approval of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, the board of governors of the Federation has power under the Act to make regulations with respect to affiliated bodies and organizations, fees, a code of ethics for teachers, the manner of selecting members of the board of governors, meetings of the board and executive and procedure to be followed, formation of standing and special committees, and other matters such as suspension and expulsion of members.

93. *The Teaching Profession Act, 1944*, is the statutory authority establishing teaching as a profession. But the development of a professional code of ethics and a professional spirit among teachers cannot be assured through the passing of an Act. Association of teachers with one another, during the process of training and while in service, and precept and example are the most powerful—some would say the only—means whereby a professional spirit may be developed.

94. No objection to the present provisions of the Act has been placed before us, but it has been suggested that Sections (b) and (c) of Regulation 4 (unprofessional conduct), made thereunder, require amendment. With this suggestion we agree. Regulations 4 (b) and 4 (c) read as follows: . . . it shall be considered unprofessional conduct for a member,—

(b) to make a report on a fellow-member of the Federation criticizing him adversely, if such a report might involve his dismissal or demotion or affect his salary, without first having shown him a written statement and given him an opportunity of replying thereto; or

(c) to accept employment with a board of trustees whose relations with the Federation are unsatisfactory to the Federation, except with the specific consent of the Minister and the onus shall be upon the member to ascertain from the Federation whether such an unsatisfactory relationship exists.

95. We recommend

*that, in the event that the Ontario Teachers' Federation and the trustee associations of the province fail to agree upon an acceptable wording thereof, Regulation 4 (b) made pursuant to The Teaching Profession Act, 1944, be amended to read as follows:**

“ . . . it shall be considered unprofessional conduct for a member,—

(b) to make a report on a fellow-member of the Federation criticizing him adversely, if such a report might involve his dismissal or demotion or affect his salary, without first having shown him a written statement and given him an opportunity of replying thereto, excepting where, in the course of his administrative or supervisory duties, it is necessary for a member of the Federation holding an administrative or supervisory office to report adversely upon a fellow-member to a board.”

*Commissioners Norman McLeod and Helen Sheppard prefer, and suggest the adoption of, the wording of Regulation 4 (b) recently agreed upon by representatives of the various provincial trustee organizations and by the Executive of the Ontario Teachers' Federation.

96. In order that members of the Federation may be fully protected, we recommend further

that the regulations made pursuant to the proposed Education Act require that, where a member of the Federation holding an administrative or supervisory office reports adversely upon a fellow-member to a board, the said board shall take no action involving the dismissal or demotion or affecting the salary of the member of the Federation so reported upon, until it has submitted to him a copy of the adverse report affecting him, and until it has provided him with a reasonable opportunity to reply thereto.

97. In regard to Regulation 4 (c), we recommend *that, subject to provision being made through amendment of The Teachers' Boards of Reference Act whereby cases such as those contemplated therein may be presented before a neutral body for determination, Regulation 4 (c), made pursuant to The Teaching Profession Act, 1944, be deleted.*¹

Teachers' Organizations

98. Brief reference has been made in the preceding section to teachers' associations federated under *The Teaching Profession Act, 1944*. At this point, we wish to refer to the Ontario Educational Association.

99. The Ontario Educational Association is an organization representing practically all educational agencies in the province. It comprises four main departments: Public School; College and Secondary School; Supervising and Training; and Trustees and Ratepayers. Each of these has several sections. The Public School Department includes ten sections, such as special education, dramatic arts, rural teachers, and urban teachers. The College and Secondary School Department has 14 sections, the divisions being mainly according to secondary school subjects. The Supervising and Training Department consists of three sections: inspectors; normal school staff; and music. The Trustees and Ratepayers Department has four sections: rural and township school areas; urban; separate school; and county council.

100. The principal meetings of the Ontario Educational Association are held annually in Toronto at Easter. Departments and sections meet separately, but all participate in certain large meetings of the general association. In addition to the Easter meeting, regional conferences of the Ontario Educational Association, generally of one-day duration, are held during the school year in various cities. Efforts are made to secure representation at these conferences of all groups interested in education. Provision is made for the discussion of a wide range of topics.

101. The membership of the Association numbers approximately 7,000. Its activities are financed through membership fees and by means of a grant from the Department of Education.

¹See paragraph 24 above.

Conventions and Group Meetings of Teachers

102. Teachers' institutes have played an important part in the history of education in Ontario. For many years they were conducted under regulations of the Department of Education and were partially supported through government grants. In earlier days, when travel was difficult and educational literature meagre, they served to organize the teachers into a professional body and to clarify and advance the aims of education. The regulations required the teachers of an inspectorate to meet for two days each year and permitted the closing of the schools for that period. The earlier meetings were usually devoted to general lectures and discussions, but in more recent years they have been enlivened by group discussion of special topics, demonstrations, and visits to schools or other centres of educational interest. In 1941, owing to war conditions, they were discontinued, and have not been officially re-established.

103. Group meetings of teachers are frequently arranged by inspectors for the study of a particular phase of education or of a specific educational problem. In rural communities they bring together in a social way teachers of one-room schools, who are often isolated from their fellows.

104. There is, apparently, a general desire among teachers for increased opportunities to meet and discuss educational matters of general or particular interest, exchange ideas, and observe special or experimental classes in operation. Reasonable participation by teachers in such activities is desirable, and should yield results beneficial to education generally. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that provision for teachers' meetings and conferences be made in the proposed Education Act and regulations pertaining thereto;*
- (b) *that provision be made for the closing of schools for such purposes, on not more than one day during the regular school year;*
- (c) *that local education authorities be permitted to pay travelling expenses of teachers in connection therewith, but that expenditures so incurred be not included as part of approved cost for legislative grant purposes.*

Professional Publications for Teachers

105. Publications for the teaching profession which originate in the province are not numerous. In addition to brochures on special-subject techniques, issued in circular form, and newsletters published by local associations of teachers, there are five publications to which special reference should be made. *The Educational Courier* is the official magazine of the public school teachers of Ontario; it is published by the Ontario Public School Men Teachers' Federation and the Federation of Women Teachers' Associations of Ontario. For secondary school teachers, there is *The Bulletin*, published by the Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation, which contains articles of pedagogical as well as of general educational interest. *The OECTA News* is published by The Ontario English Catholic Teachers'

Association and contains articles, reports, and Federation news. *L'Ecole Ontarienne*, the organ of L'Association de l'Enseignement Française, contains pedagogical aids and some general information about the association, and about the Ontario Teachers' Federation and the Canadian Teachers' Federation. *The News Letter*, containing highlights of a professional nature, is the official communication of the Federation of Women Teachers' Associations. It is circulated to women teachers.

106. A valuable instrument for in-service professional improvement was lost when *The School*, a magazine for teachers and inspectors published by the staff of the Ontario College of Education, was discontinued in June, 1948. There is need for a publication of this kind, containing material of general educational interest. It has been suggested that a journal be issued by the Department of Education, as is done in some other provinces. We do not, from the long range point of view, favour this proposal; a journal of this type would have the status of an official directive and would not necessarily express the point of view of teachers. An alternative, which we heartily support in view of the excellent material published in Great Britain and the United States under similar auspices, is for the teachers of the province to publish a magazine similar to *The School* through their official organization, the Ontario Teachers' Federation. Since the component teachers' associations have united to form one Federation, a logical development would seem to be for them to incorporate the magazines mentioned above into one publication. If this be achieved it will, in our opinion, contribute much to the professional status of teachers in Ontario.

Special Opportunities for Professional Advancement

107. The Department of Education arranges an interchange of Ontario teachers with teachers in other provinces of Canada, in England and Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland, Australia, New Zealand, some states of the United States, and the Union of South Africa. Each teacher is paid his regular salary by his own board during the year of interchange, but must defray his own travelling and living costs. There is no provision for additional financial assistance, except through bursaries provided by the Canadian Education Association which are available to help pay the travelling expenses of teachers going on interchange to other provinces of Canada. For the year 1948-49, there were 20 overseas and 8 interprovincial interchanges.¹

108. A few school boards have made arrangements to grant leave of absence to teachers for an extended period for directed study and travel; but uniform provisions applying to all teachers and boards have not been set down. Leave of absence for relatively short periods of time is more common. Few school boards assist teachers to finance such programmes, and consequently only a small proportion of those desiring to improve their professional qualifications in this way can afford to do so.

¹*Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1948, p. 55.*

109. In addition to some general scholarships and bursaries provided by universities, by the Canadian Education Association, and other organizations, the Department of Education offers four scholarships for post-graduate study in France. Other scholarships and prizes of special interest are the Hugh W. Bryan Memorial Scholarship of the Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation, the Laura L. Ockley Scholarship in Home Economics, the Pakenham Memorial Prize, and the William Pakenham Fellowship in Education.

110. It will be appreciated from our discussion of teacher education that we have steadily borne in mind the need to provide opportunities for teachers to continue their professional advancement. The programme we have recommended should effect a co-ordination of teacher education with the general educational system, and thus provide, for the vast majority of teachers, sufficient opportunity to advance professionally and develop culturally. However, special opportunities must be given to more gifted and able teachers to enable and encourage them through graduate study, travel, and other means to develop their talents and thereby contribute to education the benefits of their special gifts.

111. Three accepted methods of achieving this end that have proved their value in other fields are scholarships and bursaries, leave of absence, and interchange. There is, unfortunately, at present in Ontario a dearth of professional scholarships and bursaries for teachers. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that the Department of Education provide a substantial number of scholarships and bursaries to be awarded to teachers for the purpose of advanced study in education;*
- (b) *that the Minister of Education encourage educational institutions and interested individuals to offer scholarships and bursaries for teachers for the purpose of advanced study in education;*
- (c) *that these scholarships and bursaries be awarded on the basis of professional ability, and be tenable mainly in Ontario but also in other provinces and countries for professional summer school courses and for under-graduate and post-graduate work in education in universities.*

112. We recommend further

- (a) *that, for purposes of advanced study in education, local education authorities be encouraged to select outstanding teachers and supervisory officials, to grant them leave of absence, and to pay such portion of their salaries and expenses during such leave of absence, as the boards may deem expedient;*
- (b) *that expenditures so incurred by a board be included in approved cost of operating for legislative grant purposes.*

113. At present, teacher interchanges are arranged, subject to approval, upon application of individual teachers. We feel that, in addition, outstanding teachers should be selected by principals and inspectors and

encouraged to apply for interchange. Arrangements should also be extended to include interchange of selected supervisory officials. We recommend

- (a) *that present provisions for the interchange of teachers be enlarged and be extended to include interchange of supervisory officials;*
- (b) *that, for interchange, consideration be given to selection by the Minister of Education of teachers and supervisory officials of outstanding ability;*
- (c) *that consideration be given to payment, in whole or in part, by the Department of Education of travelling expenses of teachers and supervisory officials selected for interchange.*

The Teacher as a Citizen

114. The teacher, like any other citizen, has certain privileges and rights, and duties and responsibilities. These would require no comment from us were it not for the fact that in Brief 169, submitted by the Ontario Teachers' Federation, under a section entitled "The Teacher as Citizen", it was implied that teachers are deprived of, or restricted in the exercise of, certain of their fundamental citizenship rights. To remedy the particular situations which it considered to be unjust, the Ontario Teachers' Federation recommended as follows:¹

(c) That a teacher be eligible for election to a School Board in a municipality in which he resides but does not teach.

(d) That the right of a teacher to become a candidate for election to the Dominion Parliament or the Provincial Legislature be recognized without prejudice to his contract of employment . . .

115. With respect to the request outlined as (c), we do not believe any change is necessary in the existing statutory provisions in this connection.

116. The point at issue in (d) seems to us to be a matter of procedure. The right referred to is recognized and should not be restricted. But the teacher seeking election should follow the practice generally adopted by any employee under contract in any business or organization. We therefore recommend

- (a) *that the right of a teacher to become a candidate for election to the Dominion House of Commons or the Provincial Legislature be recognized without prejudice to his contract of employment;*
- (b) *that before accepting nomination as a candidate the teacher apply for and obtain from his employing board leave of absence, without payment of salary, for a period not exceeding two months immediately prior to the date of the election;*
- (c) *that this leave of absence be not unreasonably withheld on the part of the board;*
- (d) *that, if the teacher is elected and serves, the board, if requested to do so and if it is at all feasible, re-engage him following his term of public service.*

¹We have omitted, in particular, reference to situations which have been changed by legislation enacted subsequent to the submission of the above brief to us.

CHAPTER XXIV

COMMUNITY PROGRAMMES OF ADULT EDUCATION AND RECREATION

1. Adult education and recreation are relatively distinct types of activity, although there is a tendency—in our opinion, an unfortunate one—on this continent for the former to become subordinate to the latter. At one time, when “education” was used as a synonym for “schooling”, education was thought to end when attendance at school ceased; hence, any leisure time activity could be considered as recreational. Today, education is recognized as being a life-long process. People continue until late in life to participate in activities the main purpose of which is to acquire a skill or to continue their education. In terms of both individual and social good, this is generally considered to be more important than activity which is mainly recreational. Recreational activities in general serve an immediate need so far as the individual is concerned; but adult education activities, while they may satisfy an immediate need, are engaged in largely as means to a more remote end. It would seem, therefore, that the merging of the two under the one heading, largely at the expense of adult education, is regrettable.

2. Until very recently, provisions for adult education on the part of both public and private agencies were haphazard and sporadic, and lacked co-ordination. Pioneer work in Ontario was done mainly by the universities, Frontier College, the Workers’ Educational Association, local boards of school trustees through night school classes, and by the provincial departments of Education and Agriculture. On this continent, the American Association for Adult Education was not instituted until 1934, and the Canadian Association for Adult Education was not formed until the following year.

3. Writing about a decade ago, McCutcheon¹ concluded his discussion of adult education with this comment and prophecy: “. . . As an organized movement, it is still in its initial stages, but appears to be entering an era of expansion. In time it will become recognized as an integral part of the educational programme.” This development has been realized more quickly than McCutcheon anticipated. Although much remains to be done in Ontario, an important step was taken through the organization, on April 1,

¹J. M. McCutcheon, *Public Education in Ontario*, Toronto: T. H. Best Printing Company, 1941, p. 275.

1948, of the Community Programmes Branch in the Department of Education, with the dual function of developing adult education and recreation in the province. The events leading up to this action are worthy of note.

4. On March 16, 1945, the Minister of Education announced a new programme of the Department of Education, under the name "Physical Fitness and Recreation", to provide provincial services in the field of recreation. A director was appointed and an office established under the Physical and Health Education Branch of the Department. A budget was provided and the necessary legislation was effected to give financial assistance to municipalities and organizations through annual grants-in-aid toward recreation and camping programmes. Through advisory and consultant services, provided on request, and through grants-in-aid, municipalities were encouraged and assisted in organizing and maintaining community programmes of recreation. Emphasis was placed on local support and initiative, on planning and organization, and on co-operative action.

5. In compliance with regulations made under *The Department of Education Act*, local committees, appointed by municipal councils and charged with exclusive responsibility for services in the field of recreation, have established and conducted programmes in more than 100 municipalities. The rapid progress of this movement is indicated by the following figures, which show the legislative grants paid on behalf of these programmes since the regulations were first approved in September, 1945:

<i>Year</i>	<i>Number of Municipalities</i>	<i>Total Amount of Grants Paid</i>
1945	18	\$ 10,213.90
1946	57	55,139.44
1947	84	105,175.02

6. In addition to the development of community programmes of recreation, institutes and conferences on recreation have been promoted and assisted. These have led to the development of the Ontario Recreation Association, a body consisting of voluntary and professional recreation workers; of the Ontario Recreation Directors' Federation, with a membership of professional workers directing municipal recreation programmes; and of five zone recreation associations of lay and professional workers who meet frequently to plan co-operative action on an area-wide basis. Although zone associations function in limited areas, they are affiliated with, and co-operate with, the two provincial organizations mentioned above and with the officials of the Department of Education.

7. Concurrent with this development and expansion of recreation, the problem of adult education was being considered. Representatives of the Ontario universities met in January, 1945, at the invitation of the Chief Director of Education, to discuss the organization of adult education on a provincial basis. Partly as an outcome of this meeting, the Universities' Adult Education Board was subsequently formed by Order-in-Council,

under the chairmanship of Dr. W. J. Dunlop, Director of Extension of the University of Toronto. In addition to the chairman, representing the University of Toronto, this Board was composed of one representative from each of the following: the Canadian Association for Adult Education, the Ontario Department of Education, and the extension departments of Carleton College, McMaster University, the Ontario Agricultural College, Queen's University, the University of Ottawa, and the University of Western Ontario. In April, 1945, it received an appropriation of \$50,000 from the Ontario Department of Education, and a director and staff of seven members were appointed. The Board undertook to establish classes in citizenship, both for newcomers and for citizens, and to advise the Department of Education on grants to organizations working in the field of adult education, on the development of leadership training, and on the administration of the Ontario Branch of Citizens Forum. It was proposed that it should pay special attention to the needs of Northern Ontario, where a scattered population makes it difficult to provide adequate opportunities for adult education. The appropriation was increased to \$125,000 for the fiscal year 1946-47; and the work of the Board was extended and its staff increased. On September 17, 1946, the name was changed to the Ontario Adult Education Board, but no change in policy was made. On May 1, 1947, a division of the Physical and Health Education Branch of the Department of Education was organized to carry on the programme of the Ontario Adult Education Board. Sixteen members of the Board's staff were retained, and the appropriation of \$125,000 granted to the Board was made available for operating expenses and grants to organizations and institutions. During the remainder of the year, the work of the Board was reorganized; 14 new members were added to the staff; the offices were moved to 206 Huron Street, Toronto; and services to communities were expanded through radio, publications, training courses, and staff services. On April 30, 1948, however, the executive responsibilities of the Board were relinquished; those of an advisory nature were retained, but the staff, equipment, and funds were transferred to the jurisdiction of the Department of Education.

8. A new branch of the Department of Education, known as Community Programmes, was organized on April 1, 1948. Its duties were to administer the combined activities of physical fitness, recreation, adult education, and citizenship and to allot grants to municipalities and organizations sponsoring community programmes of recreation and adult education. Amalgamation of staff and projects followed. On August 1, 1948, the Department of Planning and Development transferred its craft training component, "The Home Weaving Service", together with staff, equipment, and funds, to the Community Programmes Branch. This transfer increased the number of staff members of the Branch to 41, and the annual appropriation to \$550,000.

9. The purpose of the Community Programmes Branch is to assist in the development of recreation and adult education in the province. In the belief that the main growth of recreation and adult education will best

take place under community auspices, the services of the Branch are designed to encourage and promote local initiative and responsibility. Hence, the Branch provides its services according to expressed need and upon request. These include advice by, and consultation with, the central office staff and field representatives; assistance in the development of locally sponsored leadership training classes; grants-in-aid to municipalities and provincial organizations conducting approved recreational programmes; the loan of books, resource material, and displays, to local communities; and the supervision of citizenship training for New Canadians, where schools are available, or, where they are not, the provision of such training.

10. These activities of the Branch are praiseworthy if a proper and judicious balance is maintained among the various services. However, as was pointed out earlier, there is a tendency for the term "recreation" to be all-embracing, and it would be a simple matter for the Branch to fall into grave error of over-emphasizing the entertainment aspects of its programme. This is more particularly true where programmes are locally initiated, since the provision of entertainment partially at government expense can be expected to prove popular. Hence, in order to maintain a balance, the active encouragement of adult education at the community level should always be emphasized.

11. This very real problem is worth discussing at some length. The need for adult education has been amply demonstrated. Few would doubt the wisdom of providing educational assistance to those who have been prevented by circumstances from continuing their studies but who have the ability and the desire to do so. No one who has been intimately acquainted with such students can fail to be impressed by their calibre or be unmoved by the efforts they are willing to make. They have a valuable contribution to offer to the community, and it is in the interests of the nation as well as of the individual that they should be given an opportunity to expand their intellectual life. There is a great field for educational effort in this direction. Indeed, it is regarded by some as the most important single field still left largely unexplored.

12. The recreational side of the community programme is, however, a different matter. Education must not neglect those fields of activity in which men employ and enjoy their leisure in recreation; the proper enjoyment of leisure is likely to be one of the important problems of the future. Nevertheless, it is questionable if it is wise or proper to use governmental direction as a means of solving this problem. The extent to which such governmental direction is necessary may well reflect the extent to which our system of education falls short of producing the mature and self-reliant citizen which it seeks to develop. Nor should we forget that recreation should be essentially a spontaneous creation of an individual, or a group of individuals, in a community. It seems wise to regard this

aspect of the community programme as complementary but strictly subordinate to the educational and to guard against a tendency for it to dilute the content of adult education or to divert the latter from its purpose. While we believe that both adult education and adult recreation are necessary aspects of the community programme, our purpose is to establish the right relationship between them. The maintenance of this relationship is, in our opinion, of vital importance to the individual and to the community.

13. Recreation and education, in the broad meaning of these terms, are in some measure functions of every public and private agency concerned with the welfare of Canadians. They are, in many cases, incidental by-products of activities not primarily directed toward the provision of planned programmes of recreation and education. There are many public bodies and private agencies which have made such programmes a major effort of their organization. To list and discuss all these would contribute much to the bulk of this report but add little to its value. Their many and varied activities have been considered in the formulation of our decisions and recommendations.

RECOMMENDED PROVISIONS FOR COMMUNITY PROGRAMMES OF ADULT EDUCATION AND RECREATION

14. Even the brief experience of the past few years in this field has been sufficient to demonstrate that there is in Ontario a need for organized community programmes of adult education and recreation. But this is not peculiar to our province. It appears to be a feature of modern industrialized societies, a development springing from the modes of living in a complex industrial world. The small, closely knit, and relatively stable communities of our pioneering forefathers had their own simple organized community programmes, personal in nature and closely interwoven with their family and church life. Such programmes, important as they still are, are not sufficient to meet the needs of modern, loosely woven, complex, and more impersonal communities. In fact, with a constantly changing population and with many newcomers unfamiliar with our way of life, the natural development of community leadership and organizations is less likely to occur. Thus, although there is an increased need for adult education and recreation services, their voluntary organization in the community becomes increasingly difficult.

15. A study of the existing situation and probable development suggests that the needs of adult education and recreation cannot be met solely through the efforts of private agencies and individuals. Assistance is required from municipal councils, from departments of the Provincial Government, and from various branches of the Federal Government. This does not mean that private individuals and private agencies will have little part in the programme. On the contrary, they must, in a democratic society,

play a vital role, particularly in meeting the needs of special groups. They should, however, co-operate with, and receive co-operation from, municipal, provincial, and federal governmental agencies.

16. We therefore acknowledge the need for assistance from governmental agencies in a programme of adult education and recreation; but we feel that without proper safeguards such a programme may become a vehicle for political propaganda, conditioning the thought and imperilling the freedom of our people. Those who understand the significance of recent world history will tread carefully and cautiously. But it is not difficult to establish proper safeguards. With initiative and control in the hands of representatives of local communities, and with agencies of the Provincial and Federal Governments providing only expert technical assistance and financial aid, there need be no fear of creating a "Frankenstein monster". Local initiative and control, supplemented upon request by government assistance, have worked admirably in other fields of educational endeavour. We believe that a similar policy will be equally effective in this particular field.

17. As a basic principle in the provision of programmes of adult education and recreation, we recommend

- (a) *that the administration of programmes of adult education and recreation be decentralized and put in charge of a body in the local area, with due representation in its membership of local education authorities; or, alternatively, that adult education be administered by local education authorities, and recreation be administered by municipal councils;*
- (b) *that the activities of agencies of the Provincial and Federal Governments in these fields be limited to the provision of grants-in-aid and, upon request, the services of trained experts in an advisory capacity.*

18. At present, there are eight departments of the Provincial Government active in the field of adult education and recreation, several of which provide services through more than one branch. In our opinion, the development of an effective programme in these fields requires a greater degree of co-ordination within the provincial government service.

19. For the provincial administration of a programme of adult education and recreation in Ontario, we recommend

- (a) *that the Community Programmes Branch be continued as a branch of the Department of Education under the Division of Further Education, and be renamed "Community Programmes of Adult Education and Recreation Services Branch";*
- (b) *that the function of this Branch be, through grants-in-aid and through the provision, upon request, of services of trained personnel, to assist in the development of programmes initiated and controlled by local communities;*

- (c) *that this Branch be administered by an assistant superintendent and two supervisors, one of the latter to be responsible for adult education and the other for recreational services;*
- (d) *that an appropriation for this Branch, distinct from the legislative grants for general educational purposes, be voted annually by the Legislature;*
- (e) *that the Ontario Adult Education Board be dissolved.*

20. In the distribution of legislative grants, the first responsibility of the Department of Education must be to ensure that formal educational programmes in our schools are adequately assisted. In our opinion, the expansion of community programmes of adult education and recreation services must not be permitted to jeopardize the formal education of our children. This may well mean that in future some curtailment of financial support, at least for recreation, may be necessary.

21. To effect co-ordination of the efforts of provincial departments of government in relation to community programmes, we recommend *that the Inter-departmental Committee on Education¹ review, and make recommendations upon, the allocation of responsibility among the departments of the Provincial Government for services in the field of adult education and recreation.*

22. Some degree of integration of the activities of the Federal and Provincial Governments in the field of adult education and recreation is essential. Competition and duplication of services, resulting in confusion and waste of effort, will develop unless areas of responsibility and means for co-operation are established. We suggest that the Provincial Government seek, through conferences with the Federal Government, to have the respective areas of responsibility delineated and the machinery established to achieve full co-operation in the development of programmes of adult education and recreation in Ontario.

23. A special problem exists in the determination of the responsibility of school boards in this field, in particular regarding the use of school property and facilities and the co-ordination of the work in night schools with community programmes of adult education and recreation. The prime responsibility of our schools and of the boards administering them must be the education of children of school age. This is related, as stated in another chapter,² to the design and construction of buildings. On the other hand, all will agree that school facilities should be utilized to the fullest possible extent for adult education and recreational programmes, provided the primary function of the school is not thereby adversely affected. Accordingly, we recommend

- (a) *that local education authorities be encouraged by the Department of Education to make school facilities available for community*

¹See Chapter XIV.

²Chapter XXV.

programmes of adult education and recreation services, provided the efficient conduct of the regular school programme is not thereby adversely affected;

- (b) that, in view of the rapid development of community programmes, the Community Programmes of Adult Education and Recreation Services Branch of the Department of Education review its services and programmes to the end that they may be properly integrated with night school programmes.*

CHAPTER XXV

SCHOOL SITE, PLANT, AND EQUIPMENT

1. Hardly had the early settler of Upper Canada cleared a plot of land large enough for a rude home and the bare necessities of life, when he became conscious of the need for a school. Log school-houses were erected by voluntary labour. One was well portrayed by the "Simcoe British Canadian"¹ in 1896.

One of the most famous Schools of seventy years ago was that of Doan's School-House, situated on the banks of the River Lynn, about midway between Simcoe and Port Dover . . . The School-House was of Logs, about 18 feet by 23, with a huge Fireplace and Chimney occupying the end of the Room opposite the Door; on the side walls auger holes had been made and long pins inserted, on which were placed boards as Desks. The Seats were slabs from the Sawmill, with holes bored in them and pins inserted for legs, and on these facing the walls the scholars were seated, especially those who had school books; inside of these, and nearer to the centre of the Room, were a second row of Benches (similar to the first, only with shorter legs), for the use of the smaller scholars. These Seats were just as they came from the sawmill in their rough state, and certainly possessed one merit; that the erect splinters served a useful purpose in preventing the smaller pupils from sliding off the seats.

Since these primitive buildings served as churches as well as schools, it was common to find a pulpit in one corner, before which, on occasion, the pupils would stand to bear witness to a marriage ceremony. Community use of school buildings has, therefore, a long history.

2. As late as 1850, most of the 3,000 common schools in Upper Canada were of log or frame construction; but of the 6,800 elementary schools today, only 31 are built of logs. A modern elementary school is described in the *Report of the Minister of Education, 1946*:

The Hanna Memorial School in the City of Sarnia is a one-storey building of twelve classrooms, situated on a site of approximately seven acres. The building contains an administration suite, rooms for men and women teachers, and a well-equipped nurse's room. Kindergarten-Primary and Grade I classes are housed in a separate wing. Entrance to these rooms is through a playground surrounded by a hedge which provides play space for the young children apart from the

¹"Simcoe British Canadian", 30 December, 1896, quoted in J. G. Hodgins, *Schools and Colleges of Ontario, 1792-1910*, Vol. II, p. 110.

remainder of the school. The school is attractively decorated, brightly lighted, and the walls have been acoustically treated to promote quietness. The grounds have been tastefully landscaped . . .

3. As brick and stone school buildings became more common in the latter half of the nineteenth century, they became at once massive in construction and monumental in design. That many of them were substantially constructed is shown by their continued use today. In fact, in one sense they were too permanent; changes in the school programme over several decades have rendered them obsolete for modern educational purposes. The Committee on Planning, Construction, and Equipment of Schools in Ontario indicated in 1945 that it believed the modern school should be:

. . . designed from the inside out, in which every detail of plan and section is considered from the point of view of the child and the teacher . . . a school is something dynamic, rather than static, in which the teaching . . . may be carried on in an atmosphere that will develop all that is best in the teacher, along with all that is latent and best in the child . . . such an atmosphere can be created in an attractive workshop, and is less likely of fulfilment in a monument.¹

4. At the present time a large number of buildings are under construction, and the erection of many more has been planned. The building plans of many school boards were postponed during years of depression and war, but a large building programme developed between 1945 and 1948, as indicated in Table 1. The indications are that the demand for elementary school construction has passed its peak for the present; but a rising birth rate, continuing immigration, and population shifts will probably result within a relatively few years in even greater demands for accommodation in elementary schools, certainly in some areas and possibly throughout the province.

TABLE 1
SCHOOL BUILDING PROGRAMME JANUARY 1, 1945, TO JUNE 30, 1948

<i>Number of Schools</i>	<i>When Completed</i>	<i>Cost</i>		
		<i>Elementary</i>	<i>Secondary</i>	<i>Total</i>
54	1945	\$ 1,229,900	\$ 55,600	\$ 1,285,500
96	1946	2,603,000	302,800	2,905,800
148	1947	5,778,800	524,100	6,302,900
43	1948	4,164,500	1,114,300	5,278,800
168	Under Construction	13,822,000	11,070,000	24,892,000
101	Approved in plan stage	6,500,000	15,619,300	22,119,300
36	Approval pending	700,000	8,055,000	8,755,000
Total 646		\$34,798,200	\$36,741,100	\$71,539,300

¹Committee on Planning, Construction, and Equipment of Schools in Ontario, "Interim Report on Elementary Schools", *Journal, Royal Architectural Institute of Canada*, XX, (September, 1945), p. 172.

Secondary school construction has not yet reached its maximum. But it is estimated that even the present building requirements for elementary and secondary education will call for an annual expenditure of about \$20,000,000 for several years. This would add \$1,400,000 to the gross debentures costs each year, so that by 1955 the annual gross debenture payments for school construction since 1945 would be approximately \$10,000,000.

5. Eleven schools, mainly elementary, built in 1947-48 in various parts of the province, provided 123 classrooms at a gross cost of approximately \$1,950,000. Thus the average cost per classroom was almost \$16,000. One-room schools recently built show the following range in total cost: solid brick, \$18,000 to \$23,000; brick veneer, \$14,000 to \$17,000; concrete block, \$10,000 to \$15,000; and frame, \$4,000 to \$8,000. The cost of erecting a building of similar size and materials in 1909¹ ranged from \$1,250 to \$1,875. Since such buildings did not have lighting, ventilating, and sanitary systems comparable to those in modern schools, the difference in cost, while pronounced, is not quite so startling as appears at first sight.

6. Building costs continue to rise. In an attempt to reduce them, school boards, architects, and contractors have turned to simplified structure, elimination of detail and ornament, and the use of cheaper materials. But the savings so obtained have frequently been offset by costly mechanical equipment introduced to obtain high standards in heating, lighting, and ventilation. Sometimes the use of traditional materials and methods has proved to be as economical as the substitutions employed in an effort to reduce costs. In other cases, efforts to economize have been circumvented by antiquated building codes.

7. Some features of a school building are more costly than others on the basis of the use made of them by pupils; for example, a gymnasium is over four times, and a machine shop five times, as expensive as a classroom. When school boards find it necessary to reduce capital costs, a careful examination is made of cost per pupil for various types of accommodation. Those areas which are not fully utilized are least likely to be retained, but special consideration may be given to those which serve both day and night school purposes.

School Building Requirements

8. School buildings must afford accommodation and equipment designed for the well-being and safety of children and for the practice of proper health habits. A survey of conditions in Canadian schools, undertaken by the National Committee for School Health Research,² revealed that many schools in Ontario, both elementary and secondary, fail to provide for

¹Described in Appendix A of *Plans for Rural School Buildings* (1909), published by the Ontario Department of Education.

²National Committee for School Health Research, *A Health Survey of Canadian Schools, 1945-46*, Report No. 1, March 31, 1947.

healthful school living and in numerous instances present hazards to health and safety. For example: artificial lighting is frequently inadequate or lacking entirely; the water supply in a large number of schools is "seldom or never" tested; and many schools do not possess even a first aid kit. The correction of such conditions will require co-operative effort on the part of school and health authorities, locally and provincially. We recommend

- (a) *that the Minister of Education issue regulations setting forth minimum requirements for school buildings in the matters of lighting, heating, ventilation, sanitation, first aid equipment, safety, etc.;*
- (b) *that a copy of the annual report of the medical officer of health on the plant and equipment of a school be submitted to the local education authority concerned;*
- (c) *that local education authorities be required by the Minister of Education to correct any conditions in school plant and equipment which are below the prescribed minimum standards;*
- (d) *that, in the construction of schools, any building practice which is in conformity with local building codes and which is not less than the National Building Code be permitted.*

9. Modern school buildings should in design and furnishings contribute to the development of good taste, and they should contain equipment that permits and promotes efficient work by teachers and students. The requirements of the school plant are, therefore, in a large measure determined by the nature and purposes of the school programme. Hence, changes in the programme may necessitate costly additions to, or modifications of, existing buildings. This fact is too often forgotten by enthusiastic supporters of innovations. The basic unit in publicly supported schools continues to be the classroom. We cannot condone the practices of some administrators who recommend the sacrifice of a large part of this essential space to provide for marginal and sometimes transitory requirements.

10. Capital charges constitute a substantial part of the cost of education, and it is essential that, being fixed, they be kept as low as possible. The extent to which a school plant can be required to provide accommodation for all the arts, crafts, recreation, and social functions for young and old is definitely limited. If control is not exercised at the time of the original construction, economies can only be effected through the reduction of operating costs, chief among which are teachers' salaries. Over-optimism during the stage of design and construction of school buildings may well lead to such heavy fixed charges for debt-retirement that in periods of depression a general decline in educational standards results.

11. In addition to standard classrooms and equipment, a multi-roomed elementary school will require the following: an administrative suite; one or more playrooms, serving the purpose of providing space for recreation during inclement weather and for organized physical education; maintenance, heating plant, and general storage space; washrooms, staff rooms,

and health service rooms; and finally, corridors and stairs. No general shop and home economics facilities will be needed, and usually neither auditoria nor gymnasia. Technically, school space is classified as either "instructional" or "non-instructional": the former is used for purposes of instruction for most of the school day; the latter, for instance the administrative suite, is space not so used. In large elementary schools at present under construction, only 50 per cent of the total space is designed as "instructional". This is too little. Since we can find no evidence that loss in efficiency would result, we strongly urge that in all new elementary school buildings instructional space be increased to at least 60 per cent of the total space.

12. The building requirements of the new secondary schools will be more complex than those of elementary schools. The school programme we have recommended calls for a variety of exploratory academic and vocational courses. This implies not only standard classrooms and non-instructional space similar to that of elementary schools, but also accommodation for science, agriculture, industrial arts, home economics, physical education, music, commercial work, and guidance. The specialized nature of some of the instruction and, in the two final years, the variety of options will necessitate departmentalization and some use of a rotary system. This, together with the fact that the schools will be comparatively large, will make it possible for the accommodation for special subjects to be fully utilized. A gymnasium or a combined auditorium-gymnasium, complete with showers, dressing rooms, apparatus storage, instructors' offices, and possibly a spectators' gallery or bleachers, will be necessary and economically feasible. In very large schools both a gymnasium and an auditorium may be justified. Adequate playing fields for both boys and girls are essential. An extensive analysis of secondary school buildings being constructed indicates that only 40 to 50 per cent of the space provided can be classed as instructional. If, at the planning stage, proper thought is given to school organization, there is no reason why at least 50 per cent of the space cannot be used for purposes of instruction when the school is operating at maximum capacity. Nevertheless, much of the space in a secondary school has a high per-pupil construction cost. These schools, then, will be more expensive than elementary schools.

13. Most of the above requirements apply to junior colleges, but with an important difference: in junior colleges, education will be highly specialized along both academic and vocational lines, and hence a variety of laboratories, shops, and commercial rooms will be necessary. Much of the instruction will take place in specialized accommodation. Enrolments will generally be large, but in spite of this the proportion of space which is non-instructional will be greater than in secondary schools. Probably not more than 40 per cent of the space in junior colleges will be fully instructional. It follows, therefore, that per-pupil construction costs will be even higher than those for secondary schools.

Publications Relating to School Buildings

14. Two publications have particular reference to school buildings in the province. One is the *Ontario School Building Guide*, and the other *Suggestions for the Layout and Construction of Schools in Ontario*. Both have been prepared to assist local education authorities and architects in planning the construction of schools, and they permit of flexibility to meet the requirements of local conditions. While we do not give unqualified endorsement to all the recommendations incorporated in these publications, we recognize that they are reliable and authoritative sources for guidance in the planning and construction of schools under existing regulations. Together with the other services offered by the Department of Education in connection with school building programmes, they will continue to serve a useful purpose when our recommendations for changes in the educational system have been effected. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that the booklet entitled Suggestions for the Layout and Construction of Schools in Ontario be subject to frequent revisions by the Department of Education;*
- (b) *that trustees, teachers, and architects be invited to submit suggestions and amendments for incorporation in future editions;*
- (c) *that regulations be drafted by the Department of Education establishing the procedure to be followed by school boards from the inception to the completion of a building programme.*

Anticipated Need for School Buildings

15. It is difficult to forecast demands for school accommodation with any degree of accuracy. The number of children to be educated at any future time is the determining factor, and the main basis for prediction is the number of births. But the number of children born each year in the province as a whole will not alone provide an accurate prediction of future needs. Additions and new schools are already required to relieve present over-crowding and to replace substandard accommodation, and the enforcement of compulsory school attendance to age 16 will immediately increase the demand for school accommodation. Furthermore, immigration, emigration, and population shifts can markedly change school enrolment in individual districts. Without exhaustive local investigations, it is impossible to hazard an estimate of future needs in a particular area. Surveys by local education authorities will be required in each of the new administrative regions to appraise the particular needs of that region in the light of the number of births, the population shift, the enforcement of regulations relating to compulsory school attendance, and the extent to which the building programme has been deferred.

16. The changes which we have recommended in the educational system will call for a readjustment of school accommodation in most places, but these arrangements should not be regarded as a justification for launch-

ing unrestricted building programmes. The greatest adjustment of school population will, of course, be between the new elementary and secondary schools. In the centres where additional construction has already been planned, modifications can be made to adjust to the proposed reorganization. In other areas, existing schools may be re-classified into three groups—elementary, secondary, and junior college. In some regions, one or more of the present secondary schools may become junior colleges; in others, a single building may serve as a secondary school with a junior college department attached. It is recognized, however, that in many regions new schools will have to be built. We recommend

that local education authorities be encouraged to undertake long-term school building programmes, including the acquisition of school sites.

GENERAL AND SPECIFIC SUGGESTIONS

Temporary Buildings

17. To relieve over-crowding, school boards have had recourse to the provision of temporary accommodation. Space has been rented in churches, halls, and other buildings; and temporary structures have been erected adjacent to permanent buildings. Wooden huts, formerly used for military purposes, have proved to be economical for interim use even though occasionally they have had to be moved several hundred miles. Although it may be undesirable to continue such emergency accommodation on a permanent basis, it is sound practice to house any unusual and transient increase in school population in temporary quarters. Essential classroom and service areas may be built on a short-life basis, but the provision of specialized instructional areas in this manner should not be entertained. Expenditures for temporary buildings should, if possible, be financed from current revenue. If it is necessary to issue debentures, their term should not extend beyond the expected “educational life” of the building.

School Sites

18. In many urban centres adequate and well located school sites are difficult to secure. Some school boards have been obliged to use park playgrounds and others have had to acquire built-up areas. The latter are obtainable only at a premium, and frequently entail expropriation proceedings. The post-war years have witnessed a remarkable growth in the population of suburban areas. There is every indication that this exodus from cities will continue, particularly by parents who see advantages in rearing children in semi-urban surroundings. Mass-housing projects mushroom almost overnight. Before school boards have time to take steps to acquire sites for new schools, houses are constructed and improvements made, which in turn become capitalized in land values. It is but the part of wisdom to encourage school boards to acquire property for school purposes

in advance of home building, and even in anticipation of sub-division, despite the fact that subsequent developments may mean the abandonment of some parcels. We recommend

- (a) *that the cost of a school site, subject to a reasonable ceiling, be included as part of approved cost of operating for legislative grant purposes;*
- (b) *that appointment of representatives of local education authorities to municipal planning and development boards be encouraged.*

19. While we have suggested that boards acquire land for schools before sub-division takes place, all is not lost if they fail to do so, since a plan of each proposed sub-division must be submitted to the provincial Department of Planning and Development for approval. We recommend

that the Department of Planning and Development approve plans for sub-divisions only when adequate and suitable sites have been set aside for school purposes.

20. We are of opinion that the *minimum* areas for school sites should be, wherever possible, those recommended in the *Ontario School Building Guide*. Recommendations in the Guide concerning site development and such factors as environment, accessibility, topography, and soil appear to be satisfactory.

Auditoria

21. Economic considerations have made it necessary for the Department of Education to exclude for legislative grant purposes expenditure for the construction of an auditorium in a new school unless there is need to accommodate 1,000 or more students. We recommend

that the present restrictions of the Department of Education relating to legislative grants to be paid on expenditures incurred for the construction of auditoria and gymnasia in secondary schools be relaxed.

Maintenance of School Buildings

22. Evidence submitted by the Committee on Planning, Construction, and Equipment of Schools in Ontario, and by other witnesses indicates that the effective life of a school building is determined as much by the maintenance it receives as by the nature of its construction. We therefore stress the fact that low standards of building maintenance cannot be justified on the basis of sound economy.

Use of School Accommodation for Community Purposes

23. Use of school accommodation for community purposes was advocated in various briefs. In our opinion, the budget of a local education authority should not provide for extra plant, equipment, and operating costs beyond those required for regular educational programmes. An emphasis on community use of educational facilities has sometimes obscured the prime function of the school plant. For example, schools have been designed

with an auditorium, a gymnasium, and a cafeteria, at the extreme end of the building. While this may be of advantage for community use, the accommodation may well be less accessible for regular school purposes and may hamper building extensions. Any arrangement designed, in the first instance, to facilitate community activities should be discouraged. Schools should be designed primarily without regard to such extraneous factors. However, school buildings should be made available for legitimate community activities which can take place in the space normally provided for regular school purposes. Therefore we recommend

- (a) *that, in the construction of new schools, the gymnasium, auditorium, and cafeteria, where included, be planned primarily for the convenience and efficiency of regular school activities;*
- (b) *that, in the construction or adaptation of a school building for joint use as a school and community centre, a local education authority be authorized to include as approved cost of operating for legislative grant purposes only such amount as would have been required had the construction or adaptation been designed exclusively for school purposes;*
- (c) *that the use of any part of a school building by any outside agency be on a contractual basis.*

Possible Economies in School Construction

24. If a crushing burden of fixed charges upon local and provincial tax sources is to be avoided, it is essential that all who are concerned with the building of schools exercise the utmost economy—educators in their demands, architects in their designs, contractors in their methods of construction, and central and local education authorities in planning buildings and in the method of financing capital expenditures. We suggest that attention be given to the following possible methods of effecting economies:

- (1) Considerable research is being carried out in Great Britain on the use of prefabricated and semi-prefabricated school buildings, and the results are being incorporated in many schools under construction. The extent to which such methods may apply in Ontario should be examined.
- (2) The minimum space requirements outlined in *Suggestions for Layout and Construction of Schools in Ontario* should generally be applied to school buildings.
- (3) Space for purposes other than those of the regular school programme should be regarded as non-essential.
- (4) Proposals for the introduction of new subjects or services involving capital expenditure should be investigated with care with respect to cost and utilization, and consideration should also be given to the curtailment or elimination of other aspects of the building programme.

- (5) School buildings should be designed so that expansion and rearrangement can be readily and economically effected.
- (6) Mechanical equipment for the control of lighting, heating, ventilation, acoustics, etc., should be as simple as possible, and should be so selected that servicing facilities are available on short notice.
- (7) Standards for school design advocated by medical and health authorities should be met in all buildings; but research is in progress which may show that current standards can be reduced.
- (8) Special facilities, such as swimming pools and cafeterias, should be constructed only where local financial resources permit.
- (9) Central schools in which a full programme of subjects and services can be provided are desirable, especially in the case of secondary schools and junior colleges. But, in the interests of economy, investigation of transportation and other costs should be made before such centralization is embarked upon.
- (10) School organization should be studied in relation to conservation of space and equipment.
- (11) The comparative cost of accommodation for different types of instruction should be carefully examined, and serious consideration should be given to the consolidation of highly specialized areas.
- (12) Separate instructional areas for special subjects should not be established unless class utilization is assured for at least 50 per cent of school time. Where only small numbers of pupils are involved, modification of existing classrooms should suffice.
- (13) Built-in equipment should be included only if there is assurance that its size, shape, and location will be satisfactory for the life of the building. Movable furniture has much to recommend it.
- (14) Where work is of the same or similar type, duplication of facilities can be avoided and construction can be simplified if open-type practical instruction areas are used.
- (15) Where gymnasia or playrooms are required to serve as assembly halls, design and appointments should primarily meet the needs of the gymnasium or playroom.
- (16) Consideration should be given by the Minister of Education to the advisability of paying legislative grants on the total approved cost of new buildings or additions during the calendar year in which the expenditures are made.¹

25. Since, for some school boards, even the observance of the possible economies suggested above may fail to bring the cost of a school building programme within satisfactory limits, trustees should adhere to self-imposed priorities based on essential needs. Classrooms and necessary service areas should be built first; the provision of auditoria, and even of

¹See Chapter XXVIII.

gymnasias and some of the larger specialized instructional areas, may have to be deferred.

26. We recommend

- (a) *that the investigation of means whereby school buildings may be more economically constructed and equipped be a matter of continuing research, and that adequate steps be taken to ensure that school boards contemplating the erection of schools are supplied by the Department of Education with up-to-date findings;*
- (b) *that schools be designed, constructed, and financed by local education authorities in a manner which will permit replacement within a shorter period of time than has been customary.*

27. The provision of adequate school buildings will be a matter of prime importance in the continuing development of the educational system of Ontario. Despite high costs, school buildings can be constructed to meet essential needs if appropriate plans are developed and followed. We cannot afford to condone the erection of even a few elaborate schools as monuments to municipal pride if the expenditure reduces the prospect of constructing needed schools in less-favoured areas. We recommend

that, in all cases of capital expenditures for school purposes, reasonable ceilings be established for legislative grant purposes.

CHAPTER XXVI

OTHER EDUCATIVE AGENCIES

1. Many educational institutions and organizations in Ontario are more or less independent of public support and control, or are distinct from the more usual types of educative agencies which have received chief attention in our report. Because of their variety, it is impossible to do justice to them all, but we wish to include information on a few.

PRIVATE SCHOOLS

2. For the purpose of this report, the term "private" is applied to those schools which are not in receipt of legislative grants from the Department of Education. Residential and day schools, trade schools, day nurseries, day care centres, and language schools come within this category, though day nurseries and day care centres may receive grants from other departments of government and municipal authorities, as outlined later.

Residential and Day Schools

3. The classification "Residential and Day Schools" is used here to designate private elementary and secondary schools. Since children who attend such private schools obviously cannot also be in attendance at publicly supported schools, it may well be asked whether the parents of such children are fulfilling the requirements of *The School Attendance Act*. However, the right of parents to send their children to private schools is implicit in certain provisions of this Act;¹ Section 4 reads in part as follows:

(1) A parent, guardian or other person shall not be liable to any penalty imposed by this Act in respect of a child if,

(a) the child is under efficient instruction in reading, spelling, writing, grammar, geography and arithmetic;

Section 2, Subsection 2, of *The Adolescent School Attendance Act*,² states: The obligation to attend school under this section shall not apply to any adolescent if,—

(d) he is in attendance at some other educational institution approved by the Minister.

Again, Section 6, Subsection 2 (c) and (d), of the latter Act, states that an adolescent between the ages of 16 and 18 years is not required to attend part-time courses if

¹R.S.O., 1937, Ch. 367.

²R.S.O., 1937, Ch. 368.

(c) he is full-time attendance at a public or a separate school, a high school, a university, or other school approved by the Minister;

(d) he is shown to the satisfaction of the public school inspector in the municipality in which he resides to have been, up to the age of sixteen, under full-time instruction in a school recognized by the Department of Education as efficient, or under suitable and efficient full-time instruction in some other manner.

In summary, it may be said that the intent of the two Acts is to ensure that all children of specified ages are either in attendance at one of the publicly supported schools or under efficient instruction elsewhere.

4. Although parents have the right to send their children to private schools, the exercise of this right gives no exemption from the responsibility to support schools of the provincial system, including the payment of local taxes for the support of publicly supported schools. Nor does the provincial education authority escape responsibility for seeing that adequate accommodation and efficient instruction are provided for all children, whether they attend publicly supported schools or not. Nevertheless, a private school is entirely responsible for its own financing and has no claim whatever to aid from public funds.

5. In order to obtain the specific information on private schools reported in subsequent paragraphs, a questionnaire was forwarded by the Commission to 134 private residential and day schools. One hundred and twenty-nine replies were received. The questions related to establishment and government, financing, staff, enrolment, curriculum, accommodation, inspection, and supervision.

6. Of the 129 schools reporting, 9 were established between 1800 and 1849, 35 between 1850 and 1899, 38 between 1900 and 1924, 45 between 1925 and 1948, and for two the replies contained no information as to the date of establishment. The following is a list of the authorities which have established these schools:

<i>Authority</i>	<i>Number of Schools</i>	
Government of Upper Canada	1	
Private individuals	30	
Religious denominations		
Roman Catholic	78	
Anglican	3	
Methodist	3	
Jewish	2	
Lutheran	2	
Mennonite	2	
New Jerusalem	2	
Baptist	1	
Brethren in Christ	1	
Free Methodist	1	
Seventh-Day Adventist	1	
Society of Friends	1	
United Church	1	98
TOTAL		<hr/> 129

Some of the schools founded by private individuals had at first a close church connection.

7. Some private schools were incorporated by statute or letters patent; others were founded, without formal incorporation, by ecclesiastical bodies or by private individuals, in some cases being incorporated later. Most of the schools were established to provide an education in which religious instruction could be given in addition to the regular courses of study. Some were started as private ventures for profit; a few began as charitable institutions; and several were set up for the care and instruction of atypical children. The schools are governed by religious organizations or communities, or by boards of governors, or by owners.

8. The schools are financed by means of fees, or by church support, or by gifts, or by some combination of these methods. The annual fees for day pupils range from zero or very small amounts in many of the Roman Catholic schools and in several schools operated by other churches, to \$375 in one of the large boarding schools, and to as high as \$480 in a school whose purpose is to prepare pupils for middle school and upper school examinations. Annual fees for boarders range from \$100 to \$1,125. The large majority of these schools are not profit-making; surpluses, if any, are used for expansion and improvement.

9. Most of these schools are exempt from municipal taxation, except for rates imposed for local improvements. The few which are operated for profit pay both property and business tax.

10. The private residential and day schools in Ontario employ approximately 1,200 full-time and 80 part-time teachers. About 70 per cent of these have had some professional training; about 50 per cent hold teaching certificates valid in Ontario; and about 60 per cent hold university degrees. Salaries are usually low in comparison with those of schools under public control. In only a few, mainly boys' boarding schools, do the salaries equal those paid in publicly controlled schools of similar size. In contrast, the salaries of the headmasters in a number of private schools are high, whether in comparison with those of their teaching staffs or with those of principals of publicly supported secondary schools. In almost all Roman Catholic schools, and in a few other church schools, no salaries, or only nominal salaries, are paid to those teachers who are members of a religious order or community.

11. In 1947-48, the total enrolment in private schools was approximately 4,700 in the elementary school grades and 13,500 in the secondary school grades. About 1,350 of the pupils came from provinces other than Ontario, and 1,340 came from countries other than Canada. Some of the schools are for boarders only, others for day pupils only, and others for both. About 44 per cent are co-educational, but these are mostly small schools for day pupils. Very few boarding schools are co-educational.

12. In almost all private schools, the courses of study for the provincial elementary and secondary schools are followed. Most schools provide regular classes for religious instruction, and some begin the study of Latin and French in elementary school grades. They frequently attach great importance to games and provide extensive athletic programmes. For this purpose, most have extensive school grounds, varying in area from less than 10 to more than 200 acres.

13. No one interested in education can fail to be aware of the divergent views which exist concerning the value of the services rendered by private schools of the type described. Some people contend that these schools are a safeguard against dangers which might arise if the state had an exclusive right to operate schools—dangers of rigidity in method and content, of mass indoctrination, and of inability to provide for exceptional needs. They also point out that residential private schools can, whereas publicly supported and other day schools cannot, meet the special needs of parents who find it impossible to have their children live at home while attending school. On the other hand, some believe that private schools of this type tend to keep influential and wealthy people from taking the same personal interest in publicly supported schools as they would if these schools were attended by their own children. We do not feel called upon to take sides on this general issue. In our recommendations, we have in mind only the need to ensure efficiency in instruction in all institutions which undertake the responsibility of educating children.

Trade Schools

14. Trade schools attract young persons beyond the age of compulsory school attendance who seek specific vocational training for various types of work in business and industry. *The Trade Schools Regulation Act*¹ (1938) requires the registration of all designated trade schools which accept students residing within the province of Ontario, and of business colleges, vocational schools, and correspondence schools. Registered schools are required to make application for re-registration each year and to supply the Department of Education with information as to proprietorship, finances, courses of study, entrance and graduation requirements, and qualifications of teachers. Resident trade schools, in which instruction is given to students who are actually in attendance, must also submit an inventory of their accommodation, equipment, and other facilities. They are inspected annually by a representative of the Department of Education. The accommodation and facilities of a resident school must be approved by the local fire, health, and safety authorities before a certificate of registration is issued. Each trade school is required to post, in a form satisfactory to the Minister, security of \$1,000 for the due performance of its contract with students.

¹2 Geo. VI, Ch. 43, S.O.

(1) Business Colleges

15. Commercial education began in the province with the establishment of privately operated business colleges in the latter half of the nineteenth century. The first institutions of this type were: Canada Business College, Hamilton, 1862; Ontario Business College, Belleville, 1868; Canada Business College, Chatham, 1876; and Northern Business College, Owen Sound, 1881. Business colleges increased in number and broadened the scope of their work to meet the demand for bookkeepers and stenographers which resulted from industrial development. But they were without supervision by provincial authorities until, by Order-in-Council in March, 1942, they were designated as trade schools.

16. The three courses generally taught in business colleges are called stenographic, commercial, and primary accounting. Each of these may be completed by an average student in eight months. Secretarial, general accounting, cost accounting, and business administration courses, taking twelve to fifteen months to complete, are also available in most of the business colleges in the larger cities. The ratio of students to staff in such colleges does not normally exceed 25:1, except by permission of the Department. Qualifications of teachers are not defined by the present regulations, but appointments are subject to the approval of the Department of Education and a minimum educational standing of grade XII and three years' teaching or office experience are recommended. Site, plant, and equipment are all subject to the approval of the Department.

17. Salaries vary from \$110 to \$200 per month according to the teacher's qualifications and the area in which the school operates. Operating and promotional expenses are paid out of tuition fees. The colleges pay a municipal business tax based on the assessed value of the space occupied. In cities of 50,000 and over, tuition fees generally range from \$20 to \$25 per month; and in smaller cities, from \$15 to \$20 per month.

(2) Technical Schools

18. Privately operated technical schools have been registered under *The Trade Schools Regulation Act* since 1938. The increase in the number and variety of their courses of study has been related to developments in industry, transportation, and communications. These schools played an important part in supplying trained personnel for the armed services in the last war in spite of shortage of staff, materials, and equipment. Three types of technical schools may be mentioned in particular:

- (a) The Civil Aviation Division of the Canadian Department of Transport and the Ontario Department of Education, as administrators of *The Aeronautics Act* and *The Trade Schools Regulation Act*, respectively, co-operate in certifying the operation of flying schools. The Department of Transport approves the accommodation and equipment of the school and the qualifications of instructors; and

defines the student-pilot's entrance and graduation requirements. The Department of Education approves the cost of the training and, through the Act, provides protection to the public against unfair fees.

- (b) Courses in radio communications, radio technology, and electronics were first offered in radio schools, which were alone in this field of vocational training until the training and re-establishment institutes were established for training ex-service personnel. The training offered is given by attendance at school or by attendance at school combined with correspondence.
- (c) Training in welding, electrical-appliance servicing, diesel and automotive mechanics, refrigeration and air conditioning is provided by shop technical schools. In resident schools, the training is given wholly in shops, or partly by a pre-residential correspondence course followed by periods of varying length for shop practice.

19. In addition to these three types, there are other schools which do not fit conveniently into any one classification. These include schools of speech broadcasting and radio drama, telegraphy, photography, preparation for civil service examinations, and, in Toronto only, dressmaking and designing.

(3) Correspondence Schools

20. An important function of correspondence schools is the provision of educational opportunities for those living in remote areas. While the percentage of withdrawals from correspondence courses has always been exceedingly high, there are many persons who attribute their success in life to knowledge acquired through home study directed by correspondence. The line of distinction between reputable and disreputable correspondence schools was clearly drawn with the enforcement of *The Trade Schools Regulation Act*. Those now registered can be accepted as creditable institutions offering opportunities for study and advancement to those who are unable to attend a resident school.

Day Nurseries

21. Day nurseries include nursery schools and kindergartens not under the jurisdiction of public or separate school boards, and relate to some institutions which are not primarily educational. Before June, 1942, day nurseries in Ontario received no financial support from either the Dominion or the Provincial Government. On that date, however, an agreement was signed between the Government of Canada and the Province of Ontario, empowering the Minister of Public Welfare of the province to assume direction of day nurseries for the care of children of pre-school age whose mothers were employed in an industry contributing to the war effort. The nurseries were financed by fees and by equal contributions from the Gov-

ernments of Canada and of Ontario. Local committees were formed in municipalities where there was a desire to have day nurseries established. These committees acted in an advisory capacity; administrative responsibility rested with the Provincial Government. Twenty-eight day nurseries, for children from 2 to 6 years of age, were set up in the following municipalities:

Toronto	13
Scarborough	1
East York	3
York Township	3
Hamilton	2
Brantford	2
Galt	1
Sarnia	1
St. Catharines	1
Oshawa	1

22. With the transition to peace-time conditions, the Federal Government gave notice that the Dominion-Provincial agreement relating to day nurseries would expire on June 30, 1946, after which date no federal funds would be available for such projects. The Ontario Government then enacted *The Day Nurseries Act, 1946*,¹ which empowers "local municipalities" to pass by-laws providing for the establishment of day nurseries, either by the municipality directly or by organizations approved by the Minister of Public Welfare. It also authorizes payment by the province of "an amount equal to one-half of the amount paid out or contributed by the local municipality for the operation and maintenance of the day nursery . . ."

23. *The Day Nurseries Amendment Act* of 1947, states that:

'day nursery' shall mean any institution, agency or place, whether known as a day nursery, nursery school, kindergarten, play school, or under any other name, which for compensation or otherwise receives for temporary custody on a daily or hourly basis with or without stated educational purpose, during part or all of the day, apart from the parents, more than three children under six years of age and not of common parentage, but shall not include a nursery school or kindergarten conducted as part of a public or separate school under *The Public Schools Act* or *The Separate Schools Act*.²

The various types of centres for the care and training of pre-school children which are designated as day nurseries by the Act may be distinguished as follows:

- (1) A centre for the care of children while their mothers are at work is a *day nursery* or *crèche*. It is usually open from approximately 7.30 a.m. to 6.00 p.m., but the hours each child attends depend on the mother's hours of work. In public day nurseries, which are established by municipal by-law, the age for admission is limited to the range 2 to 6 years; but in private day nurseries the age for admission varies from infancy to 10 or 12 years.

¹10 Geo. VI, Ch. 17, S.O.

²11 Geo. VI, Ch. 26, Sec. 1 (a), S.O.

- (2) A centre for the education of children from 2 to 5 years of age is a *nursery school*. Most nursery schools offer a three-hour daily programme of outdoor and indoor play. Some have an afternoon session for a different group of children; others offer a six-hour programme from 9.00 a.m. to 3.00 p.m., including dinner and afternoon sleep.
- (3) A *municipal kindergarten* may offer education for 5-year-old children where such facilities are lacking in the public and separate schools.
- (4) *Play schools* are operated in some communities to provide children with opportunities for recreation during July and August.

Schools classified under (1), (2), and (3), but not those under (4), at present require a licence.

24. On June 1, 1948, there were 26 day nurseries of the above types established by municipal by-law, with an enrolment of 1,121. For the fiscal year ending March 31, 1948, the provincial grant to these nurseries amounted to \$137,446.30. Nearly all the day nurseries charged fees, and some received support from community chests or other community funds as well as from the municipal council. There were also 138 private day nurseries, with an enrolment of 3,800 children. These were financed by parents' fees, by contributions from community chests, churches, charitable organizations, and service clubs, and by private donations. Regulations relating to staffing are drawn up by the provincial Department of Public Welfare.

25. Training for supervisors of all-day programmes in "day nurseries" is given by the Institute of Child Study, University of Toronto. It may also be obtained in the United Kingdom and in the United States. Supervisors trained in normal school or in the Institute of Child Study are eligible for appointment as supervisors of half-day kindergarten or nursery programmes. Certificates are not required, but the members of the staff must have qualifications approved by the provincial Department of Public Welfare.

Day Care Centres

26. Because of their usefulness during World War II, brief mention may be made here of day care centres. The purpose of these was to provide, during the hours of the working day which fell before and after the hours at school, care for the children of mothers who were engaged in war work. Financial assistance was provided by the Federal and Provincial Governments in much the same way as for day nurseries; but this assistance ceased after the return to peace-time conditions. During the war emergency, there were day care centres in Toronto, Windsor, Oshawa, Brantford, and other places. But, except for six day care centres in Toronto, they have ceased to operate; in Toronto, we were informed, it is hoped to combine the services of day nurseries and day care centres. In any event, the centres are limited in scope and purpose, and no professional qualifications or other definite standards have been set for personnel employed.

Language Schools

27. The questionnaire previously mentioned was sent to thirteen schools established by Jewish communities: eight in Toronto; two in Hamilton; one in London; one in Sudbury; and one in Windsor. According to the replies, these schools were founded in the period 1900-1947 by private individuals or Jewish organizations to provide instruction in Hebrew, Yiddish, and Jewish history and religion; the classes are held after school hours, since the pupils attend the regular provincial schools; and the schools are financed by fees supplemented by gifts.

28. The questionnaire was also sent to two Chinese language schools, the Toronto Chinese Public School, and the Chinese Mission School, Ottawa. According to the replies, the Chinese Mission School, Ottawa, was founded in 1893 to teach English and the Christian religion to Chinese immigrants, but its present purpose is to teach the Chinese language to Chinese children; the Toronto Chinese Public School was founded in 1921 to teach the Chinese language to Chinese children. Classes are held after school hours, since the pupils of both schools attend the regular provincial schools. The schools are financed by gifts and by small fees.

29. With reference to private schools, we recommend

- (a) *that a private school, defined as a school (other than a university) not now legally entitled to receive from provincial or municipal sources financial assistance derived from taxation, continue to be ineligible for general legislative grants;*
- (b) *that there be a continuance of the present statutory provision whereby attendance of children at private schools does not exempt their parents or guardians from taxation in support of publicly supported schools;*
- (c) *that all private schools, with the exception of recognized colleges offering courses only at the level of higher education, be required to register annually with the Department of Education and to pay a nominal annual registration fee;*
- (d) *that the Minister of Education assume responsibility for approving applications for registration or re-registration of private schools, on condition that he is satisfied:*
 - (i) *that the buildings, including the residential accommodation, if any, are so constructed and maintained as to meet the provincial requirements in all that pertains to the health and safety of students and staff;*
 - (ii) *that pupils within the ages of compulsory school attendance are receiving efficient and adequate instruction, sufficient to ensure competence in the essentials of a general education, including appreciation of democratic freedom and loyalty to Canada;*

- (e) *that the Minister of Education be empowered to require such annual reports from, and to carry out such inspection of, private schools as may be necessary to discharge his responsibility;*
- (f) *that the Minister of Education be empowered to refuse or cancel the registration of a private school where the conditions in the school in the matters specified in (d) above, are not, in his opinion, satisfactory;*
- (g) *that teachers in private schools who are instructing pupils within the ages of compulsory school attendance be required to hold academic and professional qualifications satisfactory to the Minister of Education;*
- (h) *that no accommodation in publicly supported schools be made available to private schools without compensation, deemed adequate by the Minister of Education, in the form of rent; and that all such arrangements be made on a contractual basis;*
- (i)
 - (i) *that, in any case where services of either teaching or administrative staff, or both, are shared by a private school and a publicly supported school, definite arrangements for such services be made on a contractual basis by the local school board with the authorities governing the private school;*
 - (ii) *that the contract indicate the portion of the time of such member or members of staff which will be devoted to the services of the local education authority and the amount of salary received from the local education authority for such time;*
 - (iii) *that only the amount which a local education authority has contracted to pay for such services be included by this authority as part of the cost of salaries to be approved for legislative grant purposes;*
- (j) *that classification of a private school as a seminary of learning (for philanthropic, religious, or educational purposes) for exemption from taxation under Sections 4 (4) and 4 (5) of The Assessment Act, R.S.O., 1937, be contingent upon:*
 - (i) *annual registration with the Department of Education;*
 - (ii) *adequate provision, satisfactory to the Minister of Education, to safeguard the health and safety of students and staff thereof, as certified in the annual report of his inspectors.*

THE EDUCATION OF THE INDIAN CHILDREN OF ONTARIO¹

30. At the time of Confederation, there were 38 Indian schools in operation in Ontario, with an approximate total enrolment of 1,409. By

¹In this section, we are concerned only with the education of treaty Indians, not with the education of non-treaty Indians. The latter are eligible to attend schools of the provincial system.

1884 the number of schools had increased to 69, with an approximate total enrolment of 1,930. In 1948 there were 85 Indian schools, with a total of 124 classrooms and 3,725 pupils. Nine were residential, and 76 were day schools.

31. The total enrolment in Indian schools, by grades, for the school year 1947-48 is indicated in the following table:

<i>Grade</i>	<i>Number of Pupils</i>
Kindergarten-Primary	43
Grade I	963
Grade II	552
Grade III	531
Grade IV	433
Grade V	383
Grade VI	324
Grade VII	224
Grade VIII	204
Grade IX	47
Grade X	19
Grade XI	2

The large enrolment in grade I is mainly the result of language difficulties, which make it necessary for many pupils to repeat this grade; only four of the schools conduct kindergarten-primary classes. The decreasing enrolment in successive grades is probably related to the fact that there is no statutory provision for compulsory attendance, although those enrolled attend regularly. The small enrolment in grades IX, X, and XI does not necessarily indicate that only a very few children enter secondary school. Only five of the schools offer courses beyond grade VIII, and most of the pupils who proceed to high school attend provincial secondary schools.

32. Before Confederation, Indian schools were maintained by different religious denominations. In 1824, an amendment¹ to the Common Schools Act of Upper Canada made Indian schools eligible for provincial grants. In 1867, the administration of Indian schools became the responsibility of the Federal Government. The *British North America Act* declared that "exclusive Legislative Authority of the Parliament of Canada extends to . . . Indians and Lands reserved for the Indians." At present, the Department of Citizenship and Immigration of the Federal Government, Indian Affairs Branch,² is the authority responsible for the education of Indians, and administers most of the schools. A few schools, however, are still operated by different religious denominations, and grants are paid to them by the Federal Government.

33. In the school year 1947-48, the Indian schools situated in Ontario were staffed by 124 teachers, of whom 70 had certificates valid in the public and separate schools of the province, 21 had certificates valid in other

¹4 Geo. IV, Ch. 8, S.U.C.

²Formerly under the Department of Mines and Resources.

provinces or in Great Britain, and 33 had no professional training or certificates. The salaries paid to teachers are dependent upon qualifications and experience, and average approximately \$1,600 a year.

34. The *Ontario Programme of Studies for Public and Separate Schools* and the *Ontario Secondary School Courses of Study* are followed in the Indian schools of this province. In some schools, subjects such as shop work and home economics have been introduced.

35. Local Indian Agents, appointed by the Indian Affairs Branch of the Federal Government, have general responsibility for the administration of the schools, and work in close co-operation with Indian Chiefs and with those religious authorities that maintain schools. By arrangement with, and at the cost of, the Federal Government, classes are inspected at least once a year by the local public school inspectors of the Ontario Department of Education. The inspectors report to the Indian Affairs Branch on all aspects of the school, including classroom work, accommodation, and equipment.

36. In many instances, unfortunately, no complete programme for the education of these children exists, except where arrangements are made for their post-elementary education in the schools of the provincial system. Yet Indian children are residents of the province and, as such, should, in our opinion, have opportunities for education equal to those afforded through the provincial school system to other children. We are hesitant about making a recommendation on a matter for which, legally, the province has no primary responsibility; but we are convinced that, through the co-operation of provincial and federal authorities, provisions for the education of the children of treaty Indians in Ontario can be improved.

37. In our opinion, it will be possible to provide adequate educational opportunities for the small and dispersed Indian population of this province only when their education becomes a responsibility of the Provincial Government and is co-ordinated with the publicly supported system of education. Accordingly we recommend

that the Provincial Government open negotiations with the Government of Canada to determine the best means of effecting a delegation of responsibility, and a basis of subsidization, for the purpose of bringing all Indian schools in Ontario under the jurisdiction of the Minister of Education.

38. In conclusion, we should like to express our appreciation of the courtesy extended by the Dominion authorities and by the local Indian Agents in permitting a committee of the Commission to visit schools in Brant County and at the Muncey reservation.

ART GALLERY OF TORONTO

39. Through its Educational Department, the Art Gallery of Toronto has the following connections with educational institutions in Ontario:

(1) The provision of conducted tours for students of the Ontario College

- of Education who are being trained as art specialists for the secondary schools of the province, and for students of the Toronto Normal School.
- (2) Classes for Toronto school children, conducted by a teacher appointed to the Gallery by the Toronto Board of Education.
 - (3) Gallery lectures for conducted tours of special groups, such as school children and teachers, many of whom come from out of town.
 - (4) The use of the Gallery and its staff by Ontario teachers, for advice on materials, supplies, and programme planning.
 - (5) Exhibitions circulated throughout the province; these include reproductions, photographs, children's drawings, and slides.

40. Two of the Art Gallery's special educational programmes for children developed out of the work with children of all ages initiated many years ago by Mr. Arthur Lismer with the financial support of the Carnegie Foundation: (a) *Saturday Morning Classes* for school children, held until recently in the Gallery itself; and (b) the *Children's Art Centre*, in a separate building, intended to stimulate children's powers of observation and imagination, and used for the numerous classes meeting each day in the Centre.

ROYAL ONTARIO MUSEUM

41. The Royal Ontario Museum was founded in 1912 by an Act of the Legislative Assembly of Ontario. Since 1947, however, it has been part of the University of Toronto. We are concerned here only with its direct appeal to the public and, more especially, with the educational contribution it makes to the children of the province.

42. Regular instruction is given to classes from the public and high schools of Toronto and vicinity. These classes are taught in the galleries of the Museum by a teacher appointed by the Toronto Board of Education or by members of the staff of the Museum. Teachers in training from the Ontario College of Education and from the provincial normal schools, and students from the Ontario College of Art, also receive instruction. Special lectures are arranged for teachers, for various organizations, for clubs, and for other groups. The clubs include two for children: the Saturday Morning Club; and the Summer Museum Club. The work with these and other organizations includes field trips to places of interest and other outdoor activities.

43. Some advantage of these opportunities is taken by pupils in schools located as far as 150 miles from the Museum; and there are many other services of special interest to those at a distance from Toronto. The Museum prepares sets of lantern slides, which are sold at cost to the Department of Education for distribution to schools. The staff of the Museum co-operates with the Department of Education in the preparation of material for radio broadcasts to schools. Members of the staff of the Museum have visited a number of cities and towns as far distant as Fort Frances, Cochrane, and

Ottawa, and have lectured to thousands of pupils and scores of teachers. Travelling Museum exhibits are circulated among schools from September to June.

44. Many other educational activities are conducted by the Museum, such as lectures and gallery talks for the general public, special exhibitions, and the showing of selected motion pictures. In general, the Museum provides for the cultural development and entertainment of thousands of people and offers educational services for thousands of pupils in the elementary and secondary schools of the province.

JUNIOR RED CROSS

45. The Canadian Junior Red Cross is a national organization, but its branch unit is the classroom. There, the pupils conduct the affairs of the branch through their elected officers, who take responsibility for the programme and conduct the meetings according to parliamentary procedure. Through these activities, pupils gain confidence in public speaking, practise democratic self-government, and learn to appreciate the responsibilities and privileges of young citizens. Each member is pledged to try to keep himself in good health and to protect the health of others through the practice of the Junior Red Cross health rules. A "swimming and water safety" training is given to instructors at the Toronto headquarters; these, in turn, organize groups of children for similar training in local areas.

46. The Junior Red Cross supports work for crippled children in Canada and other local health and humanitarian activities. The branches in Canada are in touch with members of the society in nearly all countries of the world. Junior Red Cross has aims which include health, service, and good citizenship; it educates through the active participation of its members in projects of immediate practical value.

ONTARIO FEDERATION OF HOME AND SCHOOL ASSOCIATIONS

47. The Ontario Federation of Home and School Associations is a branch of the National and International Federation of Home and School. The Home and School creed states that the associations should learn, at first-hand, all school and community conditions affecting the child; that its members should encourage all influences and conditions which will ensure the growth and safety of the child; that they should work actively to create public sentiment which will favour and provide good teachers, good school equipment, and adequate recreation for leisure time; that they should give service to the home by training for parenthood and homemaking, and to the school by adding parent power to school power; that they should be the means, not of entertainment, or charity, or criticism of school authority, but of a co-operative, non-partisan, non-sectarian, non-commercial effort to produce Canadian citizens capable of perpetuating the best of our national

life; and that the principles which guide the Home and School Associations are the embodiment of social service, civic virtue, and patriotism. In the Ontario Federation in 1950, there were 765 local associations with an approximate membership of 71,500 men and women. Membership in the associations has increased by approximately 50 per cent since 1947; this is indicative of a growing realization that education for responsibility and good citizenship can be made more effective only by a wiser type of training in more and more homes, by closer co-operation between the home and school, and by a more active and widespread public interest in education.

IMPERIAL ORDER DAUGHTERS OF THE EMPIRE

48. The Imperial Order Daughters of the Empire, through its educational programme, seeks by various means to give Canadian children a better appreciation of their own nation and of their heritage of British tradition. Contacts with schools are made—frequently through school inspectors—by local chapters of the Order, of which there are more than 300 in Ontario. A chapter which wishes to assist a school may present pictures of the Royal Family, give a library of books approved by the Educational Committee of the Order, or supply such things as flags, playground equipment, motion picture projectors, and first-aid kits. A chapter may offer prizes for public speaking or for essays by pupils, and it may participate in the observance in schools of such anniversaries as Empire Day, Dominion Day, and the King’s Birthday. The I.O.D.E. also gives extensive assistance to individual students. This help ranges from the provision of spectacles to awards of scholarships and bursaries tenable in Canada and in other countries. During the year 1949-50, \$132,600 was expended by the Order for educational purposes in Canada; of this amount, \$61,341 was for special assistance to 866 students. During the same year, \$50,322 was raised and expended for educational purposes in Ontario.

.

49. We have given brief attention to only a few of the many educative agencies which supplement the work of the schools of the provincial system. A great many other institutions and organizations might well be mentioned—so many, indeed, that we should undoubtedly be guilty of unintentional omissions if we attempted to list them. But we wish to express particular appreciation of the work of two other voluntary organizations. The Ontario Provincial Council of Women has done pioneer work in matters such as religious instruction in schools, temperance education, and the teaching of citizenship to immigrants; and the Women’s Institutes of Ontario conduct educational activities the sterling worth of which is recognized throughout our province.

50. If we have at least recognized all forms of deliberate and organized effort in education, the feeling persists that much remains undisclosed. Who can survey and record the educative influence of relations between friends,

of chance events, and of every aspect of life at home, in the streets or playground, in the theatre or store, and in a thousand other places? Many studies have been made in an effort to isolate and evaluate a few of these less purposeful influences in our lives, but the chief value of these attempts has been to make people aware of the existence of countless factors of great importance in education about which little or nothing is known. But we find solid reason for hope in a conviction that the continuing efforts of those who are truly interested in education will outweigh and gradually reshape or redirect the more subtle and contrary influences that escape detection and control.

CHAPTER XXVII

THE DEVELOPMENT OF METHODS OF FINANCING EDUCATION IN ONTARIO

1. Financing public education is big business. During the fiscal year ending March 31, 1949, the Ordinary Expenditure of the Department of Education amounted to \$47,800,000. For the calendar year 1948, expenditures on publicly supported elementary and secondary education from current funds derived solely from municipal sources amounted to \$57,600,000.¹ During the same year, capital outlays from capital funds totalled \$16,400,000; current and capital assets were reported as \$250,000,000 and current and capital liabilities as \$73,000,000. The financial transactions of local education authorities are, in the aggregate, comparable to those of a corporation with assets of \$250,000,000, liabilities of \$73,000,000, capital outlays from capital funds of \$16,400,000, ordinary annual revenue from all sources of \$91,700,000,² and annual disbursements from current funds of \$90,200,000.

2. Practically all revenue for the support of publicly supported education is derived from local and provincial taxation. John Citizen pays for our system of "free" schools, and the burden is heavy. In fact, in some countries with more limited financial resources, the cost of a system of schools such as ours would be so great in comparison with the financial resources of the people that the provision of "free" schools would be impossible. Even in Ontario there is a limit to the amount of money which we may safely spend on education. For the calendar year 1948, approximately 34.5 cents of every dollar raised locally by municipal taxation was spent on education; for the fiscal year ending March 31, 1949, more than 22 cents of every dollar of the Provincial Net Ordinary Revenue was expended by the Department of Education. Locally, the expenditure on

¹This amount is the difference between the total disbursements of local education authorities from current funds and the amounts received by them from provincial sources in the form of legislative grants and other payments.

²Expenditures of the Department of Education other than the payment of legislative grants have not been included. But most of these expenditures might well be considered to be part of the cost of education in publicly supported elementary and secondary schools. If the total of these expenditures is added to each of the above amounts, the total current revenue and likewise the total current expenditure would be approximately \$100,000,000 for the calendar year 1948.

education is approximately equal to the combined expenditures on public works and protection to persons and property; provincially, the Department of Education disburses more than any other department of government—for the fiscal year ending March 31, 1949, nearly \$8,000,000 more than the Department of Highways, and approximately the same as the combined expenditures of the Departments of Health, Welfare, and Agriculture.

3. Tables 1 and 2 show the ordinary revenue and disbursements of local education authorities from current funds during 1948 for elementary and secondary education. Not much more than one-third of the total revenue for the support of elementary and secondary schools was secured from the

TABLE 1
ORDINARY REVENUE OF LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES
FOR ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION
(Financial Year Ending December 31, 1948)^a

Receipts	Amount	Percentage
Provincial grants and other payments	\$32,577,834	35.5
Municipal (including county) contributions	4,548,842	5.0
Local tax levies	50,578,503	55.2
Other sources	3,956,705	4.3
TOTAL	\$91,661,884	100.0

^aAdapted from the *Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1948*, p. 92.

Provincial Government through grants and other payments: more than 60 per cent was derived from local taxation; and the remainder was obtained from other local sources. Of total disbursements from current funds, the cost of instruction (mainly teachers' salaries) accounted for nearly 60 per cent, other current costs (administration, plant operation, maintenance, etc.) for nearly 27 per cent, and capital charges for 7.5 per cent.

4. The ordinary expenditures of the Department of Education for the fiscal year ending March 31, 1949, are shown in Table 3; those directly

TABLE 2
DISBURSEMENTS BY LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES FROM CURRENT FUNDS
FOR ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION
(Financial Year Ending December 31, 1948)^a

Disbursements	Amount	Percentage
Instruction	\$53,389,530	59.2
Other current costs (excluding transportation)	23,947,008	26.6
Transportation	2,381,345	2.6
Capital charges	6,723,502	7.5
Capital outlays from current funds	3,725,858	4.1
TOTAL	\$90,167,243	100.0

^aAdapted from the *Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1948*, p. 92.

related to elementary and secondary education appear in the first part of the Table. The payment of legislative grants in aid of elementary and secondary education constituted nearly three-quarters of the total expenditures of the Department; grants to provincial and other universities amounted to less than 9 per cent; payments to the Teachers' and Inspectors' Superannuation Fund to more than 4 per cent; and other statutory pay-

TABLE 3
ORDINARY EXPENDITURE OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
(Fiscal Year Ending March 31, 1949)^a

<i>Item</i>	<i>Amount</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Main Office	\$ 276,020	.58
Public and Separate Schools Branch	938,683	1.96
High Schools and Collegiate Institutes Branch	115,733	.24
Vocational Education Branch	674,207	1.41
Training Schools Branch	615,700	1.29
Special Services	591,409	1.24
Departmental Examinations Branch	354,122	.74
Textbooks Branch	45,281	.09
Ontario School for the Blind	158,964	.33
Ontario School for the Deaf	306,740	.64
Legislative Grants, etc.	35,041,939	73.30
TOTAL	\$39,118,798	81.82
Public Libraries Branch	\$ 47,673	.10
Legislative Library	21,019	.04
Public Records and Archives	16,652	.03
Dominion-Provincial Training, Scholarships, Bursaries, etc.	258,585	.54
Miscellaneous Grants to Organizations	135,200	.28
Grants to Provincial and Other Universities, etc.	4,201,500	8.79
Compassionate Allowances for Ex-teachers	3,059	.01
Statutory—Teachers' and Inspectors' Superannuation Fund	2,109,538	4.41
—Other	520,863	1.09
Special Warrants	1,379,591	2.89
GRAND TOTAL	\$47,812,478	100.00

^aAdapted from *Public Accounts of the Province of Ontario*, 1948-49.

ments and special warrants to nearly 4 per cent. This analysis draws attention to two major functions of the Department of Education: the distribution of provincial grants in aid of education, particularly to elementary and secondary school boards; and the central administration and supervision of education,¹ again mainly in connection with publicly supported elementary and secondary schools.

5. In addition, the Department pays grants to public libraries and to certain educational organizations. Further, the Legislative Library and the Department of Public Records and Archives are financed by the Department of Education. The Department also defrays the full costs of a number of educational institutions, such as the Ontario School for the Blind, the

¹Included in the expenditure of each branch in Table 3.

Ontario School for the Deaf, normal schools for the training of prospective teachers for elementary schools, and the Ontario College of Education¹ for the training of prospective teachers for secondary schools.

6. As it is not within our terms of reference to investigate and report upon the financing of all forms of education and all educative agencies within the province, we have for the most part confined our attention to the financing of publicly supported elementary and secondary schools. Within this limited field, a definite policy has been followed for more than a century. Primary responsibility for the provision of education has been delegated to local education authorities. They determine, subject to certain conditions, the amounts to be expended, and disburse them. The central authority, through legislative grants, financially assists local education authorities to discharge their responsibilities, but exercises little direct control over their expenditures. However, in view of the large legislative grants paid at present, and since the expenditures of the local education authority upon which they are based are subject to the approval of the Minister, the central authority exercises substantial indirect control. At present, generally speaking, legislative grants to a local education authority consist of a grant based on the expenditures of the preceding calendar year and a grant per pupil of average daily attendance; in order to achieve a degree of equalization, they are graded according to some measure of the wealth of the community. Financial assistance from the central authority is so distributed (it ranges from little more than 20 per cent of expenditure in the case of wealthy areas to 95 per cent in poor areas) that a local education authority with even limited financial resources is able to finance its educational programme. In addition to general legislative grants, special grants are paid to stimulate the development of larger units of administration and to promote instruction in certain subjects and the establishment of auxiliary classes and kindergartens.

7. Total expenditures on publicly supported elementary and secondary education have increased greatly over the years—from about \$3,500,000 in 1875 to approximately \$100,000,000 in 1948. The largest increases occurred during and following the First World War—from \$18,000,000 in 1916 to \$56,000,000 in 1932; and again during and following the Second World War—from approximately \$54,000,000 in 1939 to nearly \$100,000,000 in 1948. The increases in cost were met partly from municipal and partly from provincial sources. In amount and in proportion, the provincial contribution was increased substantially following the First World War and again in 1945.

8. The extent to which the costs of education in recent years have been shared by the province and the municipalities is shown in Table 4, which gives, by type of school, the major sources of receipts of local education authorities for each of the years 1944 to 1948 inclusive. Also shown is the

¹Through a separate grant of \$375,000 to the University of Toronto.

effect of the legislative grant plan introduced in 1945, which was in effect until superseded by that outlined in regulations issued under date of June 22, 1950.¹ The large increases in 1945 in legislative grants for all types of schools resulted in a corresponding, but not equivalent, reduction in the amounts raised by local levies in that year. Despite a steady increase in the total amount paid in legislative grants in each year since 1945, the total of the sums raised locally has also steadily increased. In fact, in 1948 the amount raised locally was greater than at any time in the history of education in this province. While the total assessed value of lands, buildings, and business, upon which local levies are based, has increased during the past ten years, the increases in amounts raised by local taxation, shown in Table 4, are proportionately greater.

TABLE 4
REVENUE FOR PUBLICLY SUPPORTED ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS
1944-1948

Type of School	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948
	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
<i>Public Schools</i>					
Legislative Grants	5,438,240	15,413,695	16,782,469	16,890,611	17,225,970
Local Levies	28,072,630	22,325,549	22,523,358	27,872,639	35,640,067
<i>Roman Catholic Separate Schools</i>					
Legislative Grants	1,317,591	2,397,249	2,628,592	2,589,250	3,033,802
Local Levies	3,479,029	2,869,600	3,203,422	3,628,846	4,093,217
<i>Collegiate Institutes and High Schools</i>					
Legislative Grants	840,156	4,968,756	5,795,360	6,779,642	8,355,728
County Grants	1,427,563	1,505,569	805,098	773,409	772,088
Local Levies	7,435,643	5,227,955	6,321,987	8,128,558	9,090,149
<i>Continuation Schools^a</i>					
Legislative Grants	187,639	828,057	859,759	766,944	552,962
County Grants	369,370	376,534	169,164	182,404	113,169
Local Levies	165,791	439,714	449,026	343,346	270,918
<i>Vocational and Senior Auxiliary Schools</i>					
Legislative Grants	1,196,647	2,999,117	3,228,457	3,158,602	3,537,800
County Grants	448,496	439,023	344,563	290,762	177,727
Local Levies	4,975,486	3,482,596	3,835,195	5,090,174	4,776,022

^aIt will be noted that the revenue for continuation schools shows a decrease in 1947 and again in 1948, in marked contrast to the trends for other types of schools. The explanation lies in the rapid development of larger high school districts in recent years and the discontinuance of a large number of continuation schools. The number of continuation schools in operation in each of the last three years for which data are available (with corresponding number of pupils enrolled shown in brackets for each year) was as follows: 1945-46, 194 (9,668); 1946-47, 176 (8,750); 1947-48, 137 (6,234).

¹O. Reg. 134/50.

9. Such is the general picture of the financing of publicly supported elementary and secondary schools in recent years. From the point of view of the parent and child, elementary and secondary education are "free"; tuition fees are not charged, nor are rate-bills levied upon parents. But the taxpayer pays. All ratepayers contribute locally on the basis of assessment on lands, buildings, and business; and, on a provincial basis, all taxpayers contribute indirectly through various taxes which make possible the payment of legislative grants. Thus, an ideal which a century ago may have seemed unattainable or even undesirable has been realized—the ideal of "Schools supported by all ratepayers according to their property, and to which the children of all have free access . . .",¹ as expressed by the Chief Superintendent of Education in his report for the year 1848. The struggle for its attainment has been long, and at times the controversy over the principle of "free" schools has been exceedingly bitter. Not until 1871 were all public elementary schools made free, and only 50 years later were fees finally abolished in secondary schools. Barely a quarter-century ago, therefore, was all public education below the university level made free to "the children of all".

10. The present generation is prone to accept "free" schools; it never questions the principle, and little dreams that what it regards as a birth-right was hard won. To us, the achievement of "free" public elementary and secondary education seems so significant and important that we have traced in subsequent sections the measures which our forefathers adopted in their struggle to obtain "free" schools.

Development of the Bases of Local Financial Support of Publicly Supported Elementary and Secondary Education in Ontario.

11. The first schools in what is now Ontario may be described as "private" in that they were provided and maintained by school-masters and supported entirely by the fees of pupils. Existing records indicate that fees averaged about eight shillings a month per child.²

12. Schools established under the District Public School Act of 1807 were the first to be administered by local boards of trustees. Locally, however, they continued to be supported by fees, the trustees not being required to raise money for their support by other means. These were classical or "grammar" schools, the forerunners of the present-day secondary schools.

13. In 1816 the first statutory provision was made for elementary (common) schools administered by local education authorities. These schools were dependent on fees, subscriptions, and gifts to augment the

¹J. G. Hodgins, *Historical and Other Papers and Documents*, Vol. V, 1842-1861, (1912) p. 73.

²In August, 1798, William Jarvis paid 8 shillings to Mr. John J. Purcell of York for one month's schooling for his son. In March, 1799, Thomas Ridout paid to Mr. William Cooper 16 shillings for one month's schooling for his two sons at school in George Street, Little York (Toronto).

meagre government grant. Until 1833 there was no statutory requirement for the raising of any money locally. However, by the Act of 1833 and subsequent annual Acts until 1840, trustees were required to raise sufficient money locally to assure to the teacher an additional sum at least equal to the amount he received from the legislative grant. The local contribution could be raised in any manner the trustees saw fit but was usually raised by means of subscriptions and fees.

14. In 1839 the trustees of district grammar schools were required for the first time to collect locally, by means of subscription, a sum equal to the amount of money, up to a maximum of £200, granted them for the purpose of erecting a grammar school building.

15. Before the union of Upper and Lower Canada in 1841, there were no municipal governmental authorities in Upper Canada, although the province was divided into districts, counties, and townships. *The District Municipal Act*¹ of 1841 provided for the establishment of district councils and gave them power to levy taxes on personal and real property. In the same year the Common Schools Act authorized and required each district council to raise by levy an amount at least equal to the amount of the legislative grant apportioned to it for the support of common schools. The amounts so levied were to be collected by the township and parish collectors, together with the sum of 1s. 3d. from the parents for each child attending school. All moneys so collected were to be paid by the collector to the district treasurer, who kept separate accounts for each school district of the various townships in the district, showing both the amounts received from the township collectors and the amounts apportioned from the district's share of the Common School Fund on the basis of the number of children between the ages of 5 and 16 resident in the school district. The township common school commissioners, the elected local education authorities, issued warrants on the district treasurer for the payment of the salaries of teachers and for defraying the expenses of common schools. District councils were also required to assess the inhabitants of each school section in which there was no school a sum not exceeding £50 for the erection of a school-house.

16. The Act of 1841 was repealed after only two years of operation, but thereafter the new principles of property taxation and municipal responsibility for financing schools were incorporated in all Acts relating to common schools. The method of financing common schools under the Common Schools Act of 1843 differed in many respects from that followed under the Act of 1841. The Chief Superintendent apportioned the amount of legislative grant to each district, township, town, and city on the basis of its population; and he was required to give immediate notice to the superintendent of common schools of each district of the amount apportioned to the county and to each township, town, and city therein and to forward to him the

¹4 & 5 Vict., Ch. 10, S.P.C.

total amount so apportioned. The latter official was required to notify each township, town, and city superintendent of common schools in the district of the amount so apportioned and to forward it upon application. Each district, city, and town council was required to assess and levy in the municipality, in like manner as any other tax, a sum at least equal to the amount apportioned to it from the legislative grant; and to pay it to the township, town, or city superintendent; but a new clause prohibited the raising by this means of more than double the amount of the legislative grant. The township, town, and city superintendents, in turn, after receiving their share of the legislative grant, and after receiving from the township, town, and city collectors the moneys raised locally by taxation, were to apportion the aggregate, known as the School Fund of the township, town, or city, among the several school districts on the basis of the number of children residing in each over 5 and under 16 years of age. Local school district trustees were to give orders on the township, town, or city superintendent for the payment of the salaries of teachers and, in addition, were to assess rate-bills, where necessary, on the parents of children attending the school, to collect the money, and to pay it to the teachers for the residue, if any, of such salaries.

17. The rate-bill system of financing schools was very inefficient and resulted in a large number of schools remaining open for only three or four months a year. The expense of even this short term often rested on a few families, since the others, in order to avoid being rated, did not send their children to school. The Act of 1843 permitted town and city councils to establish "free" common schools, but this privilege was limited to urban centres. Those who were deeply interested in common school education realized that the task of local school trustees was an almost impossible one unless they had the right to assess all householders in a school district for the support of common schools.

18. From 1843 until 1871, there was a long struggle for what came to be known as "free schools". The Legislature removed from Ryerson's draft of the school Act of 1846 clauses which would have permitted local section trustees to levy rates on the property of all householders in the section, and which would have required them to raise an amount equivalent to the aggregate received from the legislative grant and the district levy. District councils were, however, empowered to levy a property tax on the inhabitants of a school section, a township, or the whole district for financing the erection and furnishing of school buildings and for common-school purposes generally. This provision was nullified, however, by a clause, inserted in the Act of 1846 without the knowledge of Ryerson, limiting the taxing power of a district council for all purposes to a maximum of twopence in the pound. With this limitation, even those councils that wished to do so were prevented from levying a sum sufficient to erect school-houses. The Act required local trustees to raise by subscription and rate-bill on the

parents of pupils attending school an amount sufficient, together with the section's share of the School Fund, to pay the teacher's salary and other expenses of the school. The payment of the legislative grant was conditional on a declaration by the secretary-treasurer of the section that he possessed, or had paid out, the moneys assessed by rate-bill and subscription.

19. The next step toward the goal of "free schools" was taken in 1847 with the passing of *An Act for Amending the Upper Canada Common School Act of 1846*.¹ This Act, which was intended to make cities and towns single administrative units for common-school purposes, gave city councils and boards of police of incorporated towns the power to impose such assessments as they saw fit on the inhabitants of the city or town for the support of common schools. At the same time district municipal councils were granted the power, previous legislation notwithstanding, of raising by property assessment such sums as they saw fit, in addition to the Common School Fund equivalent required by statute, to finance common schools in a school section, a township, or in the whole district. This made possible the provision of free schools financed locally entirely by property taxation levied by the district councils.

20. Since the School Act for Cities and Towns¹ of 1847 made no provision for raising school moneys by rate-bills on parents or by voluntary subscription, the Attorney-General ruled that all common-school expenses, as estimated by the board of common school trustees, must be defrayed by means of property taxation. Thus, all schools in cities and towns were to be free schools. However, the council of the City of Toronto refused in 1848 to levy the sums requested by the board, and as a consequence the schools were closed. The success of this manoeuvre resulted in the removal of the basis on which it was founded, viz. the appointment of school trustees by the city and town councils—the Act of 1850 provided for the election of school boards in cities and towns. The councils could no longer claim, as had the Toronto council in 1848, that the law was improperly forcing them to raise money on the order of a subordinate body. However, the period of compulsory provision of free schools in cities and towns lasted only from 1847 to 1850.

21. It was not until 1850 that local school section trustees gained the right to require taxes to be levied on property. The Act of that year consolidated the Acts of 1846 and 1847, and made new provisions which experience suggested or which were made necessary by a change in the municipal structure of the province. In 1849 the districts and district councils were abolished, the functions of the latter being assumed by the newly authorized county councils. In 1850, town, village, and township councils were established for the first time.

¹10 & 11 Vict., Ch. 19, S.P.C., commonly referred to as the School Act for Cities and Towns.

22. The county councils were required to raise for school purposes, by property assessment on the several townships of the county, an amount at least equal to the legislative grant apportioned to these townships. The total of the two sums was to constitute the County Common School Fund. City, town, and village councils were required to do likewise. This fund remained in the hands of the county, city, town, or village treasurer, who paid it out on the order of the various local superintendents (appointed by the councils) for the sole purpose of paying the salaries of qualified teachers. The local Common School Fund was apportioned by the local superintendents in the counties among the various school sections of the township or townships over which they had jurisdiction, on the basis of the number of pupils in average daily attendance in the section in relation to the total number of pupils in average daily attendance in the whole township. This change from the previous basis of school population was intended to favour new and poorer school sections and those with smaller populations.

23. The newly formed township councils were required to levy on the taxable property of the section sums necessary for the purchase of a school site; for the erection, repair, renting, and furnishing of a school-house; for the purchase of apparatus, textbooks, and library books; and for the teacher's salary. They were to do this at the request of school section trustees, after the approval of a majority of the freeholders or householders of the section had been obtained at an annual or a special meeting. They were also empowered to grant to the trustees of any school section, on their application, authority to borrow such sums as were necessary for capital expenditure; and to levy each year on the taxable property of the section the sums necessary to pay the interest and repay the principal within ten years.

24. The trustees determined what sum of money was necessary to operate the school for the year; and the freeholders and householders of each section, assembled in an annual or special meeting, decided in what manner the money was to be raised—whether by voluntary subscription, by rate-bill on the parents, or by taxation on all property within the section. Where the sums thus realized were insufficient, trustees were empowered to raise by rate on property any deficiency in the amount required. If the meeting voted to raise the funds required by a rate on property, the trustees could either request the township council to levy and collect the amount required or collect it on their own authority, with the exception of moneys for the purchase of a school site or erection of a school building. The power to collect moneys for these latter purposes rested with the township council.

25. The newly authorized councils of towns and incorporated villages as well as those of cities were given, with respect to education, all the financial powers and duties of county councils and township councils. The

boards of school trustees of urban communities had more power than those of rural school sections; they determined not only the amount of money to be expended, but also the manner in which it was to be raised. When the method of rate-bills on parents or voluntary subscription was used, the moneys received were paid over to the chamberlain or treasurer of the city, town, or village to be disbursed by him on the order of the trustees in the same manner as the city, town, or village Common School Fund and such moneys as were raised by rate on property. However, these trustees lacked one power enjoyed by school section trustees—that of levying taxes on property on their own authority in cases where the council refused their request to do so. This defect was remedied in 1853.

26. Between 1841 and 1850, separate schools were financed locally in the same way as other common schools. The extension of the property-taxation principle, which was fostered by the Act of 1850, created difficulties with respect to the financing of separate schools, particularly in cities, towns, and villages. The Act of 1850 permitted separate schools to share in the Common School Fund on the basis of average attendance but not in other moneys raised by taxation for school purposes, even though part of such taxes had been paid by separate school supporters. Thus, if a town, in addition to raising an amount equal to the legislative grant, levied a rate for the erection of a common school, the property of the separate school supporters of the town was taxed but no part of the sum realized was payable to the separate school trustees, who had to make their own arrangements for erecting a school-house and paying other costs of education.

27. *The Upper Canada Supplementary School Act of 1853* corrected this situation by enacting as follows:

. . . in all Cities, Towns and incorporated Villages and School Sections, in which separate Schools do or shall exist according to the provisions of the Common School Acts of Upper Canada, persons of the religious persuasion of each such separate school, sending children to it, or supporting such School by subscribing thereto annually an amount equal to the sum which each such person would be liable to pay (if such separate School did not exist) on any assessment to obtain the annual Common School Grant for each such City, Town, incorporated Village or Township, shall be exempted from the payment of all Rates imposed for the support of the common public Schools of each such City, Town, incorporated Village or School Section, and of all rates imposed for the purpose of obtaining the Legislative Common School Grant for such City, Town, incorporated Village or Township . . .¹

At the same time, however, the share of public money apportioned to a separate school was limited to a proportion, calculated on the basis of average attendance, of the legislative grant portion of the Common School Fund. Separate school corporations were granted the same rights as the trustees of other common schools with regard to raising money for school

¹16 Vict., Ch. 185, Sec. 4, S.P.C.

purposes, except that, if they chose to finance their schools by a rate on property, they were not empowered to require the municipal council to collect the rates for them. They could, however, request that this be done, and the council was permitted to do so under the Act of 1850. After 1855, separate school supporters were no longer required to subscribe to the support of separate schools any specified amount in order to be exempted from paying municipal school rates for common school purposes.

28. In the same Act of 1853, some of the financial provisions relating to common schools were altered. Trustees were forbidden to finance a school by means of a rate-bill on parents according to either the whole number of children or the whole number of children of legal school age, but only according to the number of children attending the school. Even then, rate-bills were not to exceed 1s. 3d. per child per month, and under the Common School Act of 1859 were not to exceed "twenty-five cents per month for each pupil attending the school".

29. Owing to the refusal of some municipal councils to levy and collect the sums requested of them by the school trustees despite provisions in the Act of 1850 which required them to do so, local trustee boards were granted power in 1853 to levy rates on property for the purchase of school sites and the erection of school-houses. An amendment to *The Assessment Act of Upper Canada*¹ in the same year classified income as a part of personal property, thus considerably broadening the base of local school support.

30. *The Upper Canada Supplementary School Act of 1853* also authorized the Chief Superintendent to direct local superintendents to distribute the Common School Fund in any township according to the length of time in each year during which the school was kept open by a legally qualified teacher instead of according to average attending as specified in the Act of 1850. Ryerson, in his circular to local superintendents of schools on the apportionment of the legislative school grant of 1853, authorized and requested each local superintendent to use his discretion as to which legal method to employ.

31. From 1807 to 1853, district grammar schools were financed locally by fees paid by parents, except for amounts subscribed to pay the cost of erecting a building. In 1853, county, city, township, town, and village councils were given authority to levy rates on property for the support of such schools; but, since such financial aid was not a condition for receiving the legislative grant, not much assistance was forthcoming from municipal sources. Trustees of grammar schools were by the Act required to determine the amount of the fees to be paid by the parents and guardians of each pupil and were empowered to sue for such amounts. If the municipal authorities did not assist them, trustees had to meet all grammar school costs other than the teacher's salary in this way, since, according to the new Act of 1853, the legislative grant could be used for the latter purpose only.

¹16 Vict., Ch. 182, S.P.C.

In order to secure more local support for grammar schools, grammar school boards were permitted to unite with the trustees of common schools to form a union school.

32. The settlement of the "Clergy Reserves Question" made a new source of income for "educational purposes" available to the municipalities. Beginning in 1856 each municipality received "a considerable sum" from this source. In a circular to the clerks of the municipalities, Ryerson suggested that the best way to make use of this money was to invest it in securities and to use the annual proceeds to purchase maps, globes, apparatus, and libraries for the public schools. Some municipal councils followed this advice, but a majority seem to have used the money to lower the tax rate for general school purposes.

33. In 1858, an *Act Respecting the Municipal Institutions of Upper Canada*¹ granted to municipal councils certain discretionary powers respecting the financing of publicly supported education in addition to the duties which since 1850 they had been required by law to perform. The council of each township, city, town, and village was empowered to provide sums for the establishment and support of common schools over and above those required of it by the trustees for this purpose. County and city councils were empowered, if they saw fit, to obtain real property for the erection of county grammar schools; to make provision in aid of these schools; to preserve and repair such school-houses; and to grant scholarships for the attendance of common school pupils at grammar schools and of grammar school pupils at the University of Toronto, at Upper Canada College, and at the Royal Grammar School. These sections of the Act appeared almost unchanged in *The Consolidated Public School Act* of 1874.²

34. Between 1850 and 1863, when the problem of financing Roman Catholic separate schools was under continual discussion, there seems to have been some doubt as to whether municipal councils were required, or merely empowered, to levy rates on property in order to raise the money requested of them by school boards. *The Upper Canada Common School Act* of 1850³ definitely stated that "... it shall be the duty of the Municipality of each Township [and the council of each city, town, and village] ... to levy such sum ... as shall be desired by the Trustees of such School Section, on behalf of the majority of the Freeholders, or Householders ..."; and Ryerson, in his "Circular to the Town Reeves on the Duties of Township Councils,"⁴ referred to "The authority and duty of the Township Council to levy assessments" at the request of local school trustees. He later intimated, in his explanatory letter to Mr. Hincks (the Premier) in regard to

¹22 Vict., Ch. 99, S.P.C.

²37 Vict., Ch. 28, S.O.

³13 & 14 Vict., Ch. 48, Sec. 18, S.P.C.

⁴J. G. Hodgins, *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada*, Vol. IX, 1850-1851, Toronto: King's Printer, 1902, pp. 206-209.

his draft of the Supplementary Common School Act¹ of 1852, that this requirement could be enforced by a *mandamus* to the Court of Queen's Bench.² In 1859, however, he referred to the "authority [of the township council] . . . to levy and collect School Rates for any School Section" rather than of its "duty" to do so. He stated that the section of the Act of 1850 dealing with the matter applied ". . . to all School Sections alike, and therefore Separate, as well as Mixed School Sections . . ."³ He went on to say that ". . . most Township Councils refuse to have the trouble of levying and collecting School Rates for paying the ordinary salaries of Teachers and the incidental expenses of the School, and only consent to do so for the purchase of School Sites for the erection of School Houses".⁴ In fact, in his School Report of 1858 (written two months earlier than the letter from which the previous quotation is taken) Ryerson stated: ". . . the Municipalities are not compelled to levy and collect a farthing for the support of Public Schools; when they do impose an assessment for them, they do so voluntarily; and it is in the power of each Municipality to put an end to the Public School System within its own limits, by simply declining to levy and collect any Rates for Common School purposes."⁵ These statements seem to indicate that, after 1855, Ryerson interpreted the Act of 1850 in such a way as to relieve municipal councils of the *duty* of levying and collecting school section rates for separate schools, and that he even went to the extent of giving them the same relief with respect to "Public Schools". He stated, however, that the Taché Separate Schools Act of 1855 did not repeal the clause in the Act of 1850 which ". . . authorized [a municipal council] to comply with the request of the Trustees of a Separate, as well as of a Public, School Section, to levy and collect a special Rate from the supporters of such School within the limits of such Section . . ."⁶

35. The Acts of 1859 and 1871, however, clearly required municipal councils to levy and collect rates at the request of trustees; and, in 1873, a regulation relating to public school trustees in rural sections referred to the power of such trustees "To apply, if they judge expedient, to the Municipality of their Township . . . to raise any School rate authorized by the inhabitants; and to compel the Council to collect it, by *mandamus* from one of the Superior Courts, should the Council refuse to do so."⁷ We could find no record as to whether this power of public school trustees was ex-

¹An Act to make certain Provisions with regard to Common Schools in Upper Canada for a limited period, 16 Vict., Ch. 22, S.P.C.

²J. G. Hodgins, *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada*, Vol. X, 1851-1852, Toronto: King's Printer, 1903, p. 160.

³*Ibid.*, Vol. XIV, p. 277.

⁴*Ibid.*

⁵*Ibid.*, p. 104.

⁶*Ibid.*, p. 278.

⁷J. G. Hodgins, *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada*, Vol. XXV, 1871-1874, Toronto: King's Printer, 1908, p. 197.

tended to separate school trustees at that time. In 1877, however, *An Act to amend the several Acts respecting the Education Department, Public and High Schools, and the University of Toronto*¹ made it the duty of every township council "To cause, through their Collectors and other Municipal officers, to be levied in each year, upon the taxable property liable to pay the same, all sums of money for rates or taxes legally imposed thereon in respect of Public or Separate Schools by competent lawful authority in that behalf and at their request . . ." But neither public nor separate school authorities were required to have their funds raised by the municipal authorities. Both continued to have power to levy and collect rates on property under their own authority.

36. In 1863 the new Separate Schools Act² entitled separate schools to a share in all "public grants, investments, and allotments for Common School purposes now made or hereafter to be made by . . . the Municipal authorities, according to the average number of pupils attending such school during the twelve next preceding months . . . as compared with the whole average number of pupils attending School in the same City, Town, Village or Township". This provision was applicable chiefly to the Clergy Reserves Fund of each municipality, for this was the only fund conforming to the clause in the Act; but any grant made by a municipality for elementary school purposes out of its general revenue would also have had to be divided in the same way between public and separate schools.

37. In 1865 the payment of the grammar school grant was for the first time made contingent upon the provision of moneys from local sources—the Grammar School Improvement Act³ made the payment of the grant dependent on the provision of a sum from local sources at least equal to half the grant. Municipal authorities were not required to raise this sum by property assessment but could use money from the Clergy Reserves Fund or the general funds of the municipality. No stipulation was made as to the respective portions of the money to be provided by the county municipality on the one hand, and the city, town, village, and township municipalities on the other. Ryerson suggested in a circular that the sum required by law should be divided equally, one-half to be provided by the county council.

38. *The Act to Improve the Common and Grammar Schools of the Province of Ontario* of 1871 made the public elementary schools "free". Such schools could no longer be supported by fees or rate-bills on parents, but must be financed by a rate on property together with such amounts as could be raised by subscription. Apparently the collection of fees continued to be a right of separate school boards. Urban public school boards were

¹40 Vict., Ch. 16, Sec. 13 (2), S.O.

²*An Act to Restore to Roman Catholics in Upper Canada Certain Rights in Respect to Separate Schools*, 26 Vict., Ch. 5, S.P.C.

³*An Act for the further improvement of Grammar Schools in Upper Canada*, 29 Vict., Ch. 23, S.P.C.

permitted, however, to charge a fee of not more than 20 cents per month per child to help defray the cost of textbooks, stationery, and other contingencies. These provisions are still in the statutes, but the right to charge a fee of 20 cents per month has been extended to all elementary school authorities.

39. The Act of 1871 made some changes in the methods of financing grammar schools (which were renamed high schools), but did not abolish fees in these schools. The municipal council of each city and separated town was required to raise a sum equal to one-half the amount of the government grant together with such other sums as might be necessary for the accommodation and support of the school as determined by the high school board. The municipal council of each county was required to raise an amount equal to one-half the government grant on the application of a high school board of a town, incorporated village, or township; while the other sums required for the operation of the school were to be raised, upon the application of the high school board, by the council of the local municipality in which the high school was located. In a high school district comprising all of a county or any part of a county (except a whole town, village, or township), the other sums required from local sources were to be provided by the council or councils of the local municipality or municipalities all or part of which were included in the high school district.

40. While it was not specifically stated in the Act that municipal councils were to raise the sums required by the high school and collegiate institute boards by a rate on property, this was practically the only way in which the money could be raised. Ryerson, who since 1854 had been advocating municipal property assessment for the support of grammar schools, indicated in his annual report his opinion that the Act of 1871 conceded his point.¹ Fees, however, continued to be paid by pupils; in 1872 they constituted 11 per cent of the total revenue of high school boards; other moneys raised from local sources constituted 46 per cent of the total. When the school statutes were consolidated in 1874, it was made clear that the money provided for high schools by municipal councils was to be raised by property assessment.

41. Thus, the pattern of local financial support for schools had assumed its main outlines by 1874 in relation to public and separate schools and to high schools. Only a few changes have taken place since that date. Among these are:

- (1) The statute passed in 1877 made clear the power of the trustees of Roman Catholic separate schools to require municipal councils to levy and collect rates on the property of separate school supporters.
- (2) In 1885 the power to levy and collect rates on property on their own authority was withdrawn from all public school trustees except from

¹J. G. Hodgins, *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada*, Vol. XXII, 1869-1871, Toronto: King's Printer, 1908, p. 298.

those of school sections located in unorganized townships and unsurveyed territory.

- (3) The statute of 1896 required township councils to raise a sum of at least \$150 by taxation for every public school in the township in operation for the whole year; at the present time the amounts raised vary according to assessment from \$150 to \$600 for each principal teacher, and from \$100 to \$400 for each assistant teacher.
- (4) Secondary schools were made "free" in 1921.

42. Changes from time to time in the definition of rateable property, as given in the Assessment Acts, have considerably affected the local financing of education. We have seen how, after 1853, both personal property, including income, and real property were available for support of the local educational programme. In 1890¹ the tax base was further broadened when municipalities were empowered to collect a business tax not to exceed 7.5 per cent of the annual value² of the premises in which the business was carried on. Where such business tax was imposed, however, personal property belonging to the business became exempt from taxation.

43. In 1904 a major change was the exclusion of personal property (with the exception of income) from the definition of rateable property. At that time, however, the imposition of a business tax, based on a varying percentage of the assessment of the real property occupied, became mandatory. Finally, in 1936, personal income was exempted from municipal rates when the province entered the income tax field; and during the Second World War corporation income became no longer rateable by municipal and school authorities. Thus, at the present time, real property and business assessment bear the whole burden of local contribution to the support of elementary and secondary education.

Development of the Bases for Provincial Financial Assistance to Publicly Supported Elementary and Secondary Education in Ontario

44. The first government aid to education in Upper Canada was a grant of £100 to a private classical school in Cataraqui in 1796. Two years later 549,217 acres of waste lands of the Crown were granted for the establishment and maintenance of four grammar schools and a university. Difficulty was experienced in selling this land at a reasonable return, and it was decided to proceed with the formation of grammar schools financed directly from the general funds of the province. Under the District Public School Act of 1807, eight public (district) grammar schools were established. These were aided by grants of £100 each for the purpose of paying the salary of the master. These annual grants continued in force with few changes until 1853. The total amount increased with the increase in the number of districts, amounting in 1839, for the fourteen districts, to £1,400.

¹53 Vict., Ch. 55, Sec. 5 (4), S.O.

²Annual value was defined as 7 per cent of the assessed real value of premises.

45. Of the 1798 land grant, some 250,000 acres were exchanged for Crown lands in 1826. Nearly 64,000 acres of this land, worth about ten shillings per acre, were allocated to establish Upper Canada College. In 1839, since a large portion of the remaining land-grant acreage had been assigned to King's College, another 250,000 acres of the original grant were set aside for the support of grammar schools. No land was designated for the support of common schools, although a land grant for common schools was urged as early as 1816 and again in 1831, 1833, and 1839. But in 1849, 1,000,000 acres of land were appropriated by the Legislature for the support of common schools, to be divided equally between Upper and Lower Canada.

46. The first provincial assistance toward the establishment of common schools was the grant of £6,000 in 1816. This money was to be granted annually for four years and was to be divided among the ten districts, no school to receive more than £25. In 1820 the amount was reduced to £2,500, to be divided equally among the ten districts of the province. In 1824, £150 was voted. With this the General Board was to purchase books and tracts designed to afford moral and religious instruction. In 1833 the common school grant was increased by an additional grant of £5,650, to be distributed in varying amounts to the twelve districts subject to the condition that the trustees paid their teachers an equal sum. This situation continued until 1841.

47. By the Act of 1841, provision was made for an annual grant of £50,000, considered very generous at that time, to be distributed to the municipal districts of the United Province of Canada according to the number of children between the ages of 5 and 16 as shown in the last census. The Act of 1843 provided that the Upper Canada portion of the legislative school grant be distributed according to population instead of number of pupils and divided the £50,000 between Upper and Lower Canada according to population—£21,000 to the former, and £29,000 to the latter. The grant continued to be so divided until 1851, although the population of Upper Canada surpassed that of Lower Canada in 1848. After 1851 the fund was shared evenly; but difficulties continued to arise in the division as the amount of legislative grant increased. In 1856 the grant of £96,800 was divided according to population. This arrangement was considered by representatives of both provinces to be a final settlement of the problem.

48. The Act of 1846 authorized the expenditure of £1,500 for procuring and furnishing a normal school, and an additional £1,500 for the salaries of its teachers. No common school using books which were publicly disapproved by the Provincial Board of Education was to share in the government grant. By the Act of 1850 provision was made to the extent of £3,000 for the establishment and support of school libraries. The normal school was assisted by a grant of £1,000 to defray the expenses of teachers

in training. In 1853 the legislative grant for education was increased by £4,000 per annum. Some of the grant was to be expended in special aid to assist common schools in new and poor townships. Up to £1,000 could be spent on normal and model schools and in supplying a copy of the *Journal of Education* to each school corporation and local superintendent. Further, a sum not exceeding £500 per annum was to be applied toward a fund for the superannuation of teachers.

49. From 1841 to 1855, separate schools shared in the legislative grant in the same manner as other common schools. In 1855, with the passing of the Taché Separate School Act, separate schools continued to share in this grant according to the average number of pupils in attendance but not in municipal funds raised by taxation for common-school purposes. Up to this time the total amount voted for public and separate schools had been forwarded to the cities, towns, townships, and villages and then distributed by the local superintendent to the various public and separate school boards within the municipality; after 1855 the grants to separate schools were apparently apportioned and distributed directly by the Chief Superintendent.

50. At the time of Confederation, the statutory bases for the distribution of legislative grants to common schools and Roman Catholic separate schools were contained in the *Upper Canada Common School Act*¹ of 1859 and the *Separate Schools Act*² of 1863. We deem it essential, therefore, to outline in some detail the provisions relating to the distribution of the legislative grant contained therein.

51. Under Section 106 of the Common School Act of 1859, it was the duty of the Chief Superintendent of Education "To apportion annually . . . all moneys . . . provided by the legislature for the support of Common Schools in Upper Canada, *and not otherwise appropriated by law*³ to the several Counties, Townships, Cities, Towns, and Incorporated Villages" on the basis of population. He was also empowered to direct the distribution of the Common School Fund (the legislative grant plus at least an equal amount raised by local assessment) of any township among the school sections according to the length of time during which the school had been kept open by a legally qualified teacher. Under Section 91, local superintendents were required to apportion the Common School Fund to the several sections of a township on the basis of average attendance unless otherwise directed by the Chief Superintendent. Section 123 provided that the Common School Fund "shall wholly and without diminution, be expended in the payment of Teachers' Salaries as herein provided".

52. Section 20 of the Separate Schools Act of 1863 stated:

Every Separate School shall be entitled to a share in the fund annually granted by the Legislature of this Province for the support of Common Schools, and shall

¹22 Vict., Ch. 64, C.S.U.C.

²26 Vict., Ch. 5, S.P.C.

³Italics ours.

be entitled also to a share in all other public grants, investments and allotments for Common School purposes now made or hereafter to be made by the Province or the Municipal authorities, according to the average number of pupils attending such school during the twelve next preceding months, or during the number of months which may have elapsed from the establishment of a new Separate School, as compared with the whole average number of pupils attending School in the same City, Town, Village or Township.

Under this section, only a local division of the legislative grant as between common and separate schools was specified—in each city, town, village, or township. The basis to be used was average attendance. This provision was, in fact, similar to that in Section 91 of the *Upper Canada Common School Act* of 1859. It was apparently contemplated in the Act of 1863 that the legislative grant for common-school purposes would first be apportioned to the several cities, towns, villages, and townships in Upper Canada on the basis set forth in the Common School Act of 1859. Reference must also be made to the phrase in Section 20 of the Act of 1863, “. . . all other public grants, investments and allotments for Common School purposes now made or hereafter to be made by the Province . . .” According to Ryerson, the only public grant or investment that could come within this provision was the Clergy Reserves Fund, and then only where it was applied by municipalities for common-school purposes. The “allotments” for common-school purposes, to which reference was also made in Section 20 of the Act of 1863, would likewise refer to any general amount for common-school purposes which was derived provincially from all taxpayers and therefore would be distributed to both forms of common schools.

53. In the case of *Tiny Separate School Trustees vs. The King*,¹ discussed in some detail in Chapter XIX, it was contended that separate schools had a right to share in the total legislative grants for common-school purposes before any sums were paid to public schools for special purposes. But the Privy Council held that the Legislature could appropriate sums for various purposes out of the moneys it granted for schools and that only the balance of the grant, after such appropriations had been made, was to be divided between public and separate schools. It was contemplated in the Common School Act of 1859 that such appropriations would be made—as witness the phrase “not otherwise appropriated by law” in Section 106; and some \$65,000 was expressly appropriated in Section 120 for the support of normal schools, for the payment of inspectors of grammar schools, for the support of superannuated common-school teachers, for the establishment and support of “Public School Libraries”, and for various other purposes.

54. The basis for the distribution of grants to common and separate schools in effect at the time of Confederation remained unaltered, save for minor variations, for 40 years. The only change which might be considered of major importance was that expenditures from legislative grants apparently ceased to be restricted to the payment of teachers’ salaries.

¹97 *Law Journal, Privy Council*, p. 69.

55. Very little change was made between 1807 and 1853 in the contribution of the central authority to the financing of grammar schools. In 1839 provision was made for a maximum grant of £200 to each district for the erection of school buildings, contingent upon an equal sum being contributed voluntarily by the inhabitants. Provision was also made for the establishment of two additional schools in each district where suitable school-houses were erected by the local people, and a grant of £100 to each school was authorized where the attendance was not below 60 and where the new schools were at least 6 miles from the original district school. Regulations under this Act also granted £50 per annum for an assistant teacher in each school. In 1853 a Grammar School Fund was established for the first time, composed of all money arising from the sale of lands set apart for, and all moneys granted by the Legislature for, grammar school purposes. This fund was to be invested in government or other securities, and the income was to be apportioned by the Chief Superintendent to the various grammar schools on the basis of the population of the several counties or united counties in relation to the whole population of Upper Canada. The sum of £100 was to be set aside for each senior grammar school and the remainder apportioned on a population basis; and no new school could be opened unless £50 remained available for its support. By regulations issued in 1855, the basis for the distribution of this remaining sum was changed; henceforth, each grammar school was to share according to the number of classical students enrolled.

56. In 1855, additional funds were provided by the Grammar and Common School Improvement Act.¹ The sum of £1,000 per annum was provided for a model grammar school to train grammar school teachers. This school functioned from 1858 until 1863. The Act also provided for £250 annually for the payment of grammar school inspectors, £2,500 per annum for purchasing maps for the common and grammar schools, and £3,500 for the extension of public libraries in connection with them.

57. By the Act of 1865 grants to grammar schools were to be apportioned on the basis of average daily attendance of pupils enrolled for the prescribed programme of studies. Checks on the number of new grammar schools to be established were continued; no new school could be opened unless the fund was sufficient to provide a grant of \$300 annually to the school. About this time, girls first began entering grammar schools in such numbers that grants to schools admitting boys only were seriously lowered. The problem was solved, at least for the year 1867, by regarding the attendance of two girls in the classics as being equal to that of one boy. However, by 1869, girls were recognized as normal grammar school pupils, provided they were engaged in one of the prescribed courses of study.

58. By the Act of 1871 a new type of institution, known as a collegiate institute, was established for the education in classical studies of boys only.

¹18 Vict., Ch. 132, S.P.C.

These institutions were to receive an additional grant of not less than \$750 per year. General high school grants were to be based primarily on a new principle known as "payment by results". Three factors were to be considered: average attendance; proficiency in the various branches of study; and the length of time each high school was kept open as compared with other high schools. Under the new law the schools received greater support, the grants being increased from \$57,000 to \$70,000.

59. However, in order that the smaller schools might be assured a certain degree of stability, the plan finally adopted in 1875 provided for a fixed allowance of \$400 to each high school. In addition, there were to be grants based on average attendance, results of inspection, and results of the written examination in the subjects of the second year. After a trial period of several years, it became clear that "payment by results" was having an injurious effect on the work of high schools, and the \$15,000 grant for this purpose was discontinued.

60. By 1885 there had been established a system of grants that continued in force with numerous minor changes until 1936. During these years the grants were distributed on the basis of salaries paid to teachers, the character and equipment of the school buildings, and the average attendance of pupils. In 1936, in an effort to obtain greater equalization, a new system of grants for secondary schools was introduced. During the years 1936 to 1944, grants on teachers' salaries and on attendance were graduated according to the wealth of the school district. But, since the total grant to secondary schools was small (only 12 per cent of total expenditure in 1942), this effort to achieve equalization met with little success.

61. In 1907 an amendment to *The Department of Education Act* made the first major change in over 40 years in the basis of grants to public and separate schools. The grant to urban schools was to be paid on the old basis: the total was to be apportioned among the cities, towns, and incorporated villages according to population; the allocation to each urban municipality was to be divided between public and separate schools according to the number of pupils in average daily attendance. But the general grant for rural public and separate schools in counties and territorial districts was to be apportioned on the basis of salaries paid to teachers, the value of equipment, the character of the accommodation, the grade of teachers' certificates, and the amount of the assessment. In addition, special grants were provided for public and separate school boards in poor rural districts to assist in the payment of teachers' salaries and such other school costs as the Minister of Education might consider expedient.

62. In 1908 an amendment to *The Department of Education Act* gave the Minister power to apportion all money voted by the Legislature for special grants to urban public and separate schools among the several cities, towns, and incorporated villages on the basis of the teachers' certificates

and length of successful teaching experience. A further amendment, in 1910, provided that the money appropriated as a special grant for urban public and separate schools and the sums appropriated as a general grant for rural public and separate schools were to be divided so that separate schools would receive out of each an amount proportional to the average number of pupils in attendance. All moneys appropriated for fifth classes, manual training, household science, art, agriculture, school gardens, kindergartens, night schools, and free textbooks were to be apportioned in a similar manner.

63. By *The School Law Amendment Act*¹ of 1922, it was provided that, subject to the regulations, the apportionment of all sums of money appropriated as a general grant for rural public and separate schools should be on the basis of the salaries paid to teachers, the value of equipment, the character of the accommodation, the grade of the teachers' certificates and length of successful teaching experience, and the assessment of the sections or, in the case of a separate school, the assessment of the property of the separate school supporters, and any other relevant circumstances. By *The School Law Amendment Act*² of 1924 all money appropriated as a special grant for urban public and separate schools was to be apportioned among the several cities, towns, and villages, having regard to the value of the property liable to taxation for school purposes, the expenditure of the board upon education, and such other considerations as, in the opinion of the Minister, were relevant. The Minister was also to apportion all sums of money appropriated as a general grant for rural public and separate schools among such rural schools, having regard to the value of the property liable to taxation for school purposes, the attendance at the schools, the expenditure of the board upon education, and such other considerations as, in his opinion, were relevant.

64. *The School Law Amendment Act*³ of 1930 provided that the Minister was to apportion *all* sums of money appropriated for public and separate schools among the several cities, towns, and villages, and among the rural schools, having regard to attendance, the value of property liable for taxation for school purposes, the expenditures of the board, and such other considerations as the Minister might deem necessary. This was a major change: it placed both urban and rural schools on the same basis, included all the expenditures of a board, and recognized the need for equalization. Only minor changes were made in the years following, but in 1945 the legislative grant plan was completely revised.

65. Mention should also be made of the numerous special grants, which amounted to 11 per cent of the total grant for elementary and secondary schools in the school year 1942-43. These were paid to encourage various pro-

¹12 & 13 Geo. V, Ch. 98, S.O.

²14 Geo. V, Ch. 82, S.O.

³20 Geo. V, Ch. 63, S.O.

jects. In some cases it was found that special aid was contrary to the principle of equalization; only wealthier municipalities could afford the extra service and so obtain the grant. Most of these special grants were discontinued in 1945.

Basis for the Distribution of Legislative Grants as Introduced in 1945

66. Subject to relatively minor amendments, such as percentage reductions in 1947 and 1948, grants to elementary and secondary schools from 1945 to 1949 were distributed according to the basis set forth in *Circular Grants General 12*, issued in December, 1944. In addition to the provision of a new basis for the distribution of legislative grants, the total amount appropriated was almost tripled, thereby practically doubling the total expenditures of the Department of Education. Public and separate school boards received grants on approved expenditures of the preceding year. For boards in urban municipalities, grants were graded from 30 (26 in 1949) to 60 (55 in 1949) per cent according to the population; for those in rural areas, they were graded from 50 (45 in 1949) to 90 (89 in 1949) per cent according to assessment per classroom. Boards of larger administrative units received additional grants on a one-mill basis, ranging from \$150 to a maximum of \$300 for each school section forming part of the larger unit.

67. Boards of collegiate institutes, high schools, and grade A or B continuation schools received grants of \$10 per pupil on the average attendance during the preceding calendar year (discontinued in 1949) and also a grant on the approved expenditure of the preceding year graded from 5 (15 in 1949) to 75 per cent according to the ratio of the approved cost to the assessment for school purposes. The "board of a vocational school" received two grants: one was based on the total salaries paid to qualified teachers and ranged from 90 (85 in 1949) per cent of the first \$20,000 to 60 (55 in 1949) per cent of any sum over \$60,000; the other was equal to 50 per cent of any amount paid out of current revenue for the erection of a building or portion of a building and new equipment and furniture provided for instructional purposes (including capital expenditures and capital charges from current revenue). The latter grant applied to new capital expenditures only, since, under earlier grant plans for vocational schools, a specified proportion ranging from 25 to 75 per cent of the capital charges had been guaranteed for the life of the debenture issue.

68. A number of "special" grants were continued, although for the most part the special and assisted grants previously paid were discontinued. Those which were continued under the new regulations included grants made on behalf of auxiliary classes, kindergartens, and night schools, and those made to encourage instruction in agriculture, general shop, home economics, and industrial arts and crafts. In 1948 the total amount paid in

special grants amounted to \$464,812, which was approximately 1.3 per cent of the total paid in legislative grants to school boards during that year.

69. A number of limitations were imposed on the amount of legislative grant to be paid to a board. A general limitation was that expenditures included for legislative grant purposes were subject to the approval of the Minister. Specific limitations were set for different types of schools, as follows:

(1) *Elementary Schools*

- (a) The total of special and general legislative grants to a board was not to exceed 95 per cent of the approved cost.
- (b) Grants to rural public school boards, with certain exceptions, were not to exceed the difference between the approved cost and the amount of the township grant payable.
- (c) The approved cost was not to exceed \$115 per pupil of average attendance except where the average attendance was less than 25, in which case the number 25 was to be used.

The cost of transportation incurred by boards of larger units of administration and the fees paid to another board were added to the maximum approved cost calculated under the above.

(2) *Academic Secondary Schools*

- (a) The total of special and general legislative grants to a board was not to exceed 95 per cent of the approved cost.
- (b) The approved cost was not to exceed \$150 per pupil of average attendance in the case of grade A or B continuation schools or \$200 per pupil of average attendance in the case of high schools and collegiate institutes, subject, in 1949, to limits based on the number of pupils per teacher.

Again, the cost of transportation for pupils resident in the high school district and the fees paid to another board were added to the maximum approved cost calculated under the above.

(3) *Vocational Schools*

No specific limitations were imposed (although provided in the regulations prior to 1948) on grants payable on behalf of a vocational school. They were hardly necessary, since the grants were paid on only part of the cost—salaries and capital expenditures and charges—and in no case reached 100 per cent of the cost of even these two items.

70. We conducted a careful and detailed investigation of the effects of the 1945 plan for the distribution of legislative grants, but, in view of the fact that a new basis was set forth in regulations in 1950,¹ we propose to give only a summary of the results we obtained. The general purpose underlying the 1945 plan was undoubtedly to equalize as far as possible the tax

¹O. Reg. 134/50.

rate which it would be necessary to levy locally in order to raise the sum remaining after the legislative grant had been deducted from the total expenditure of the board. But the plan had a number of inherent weaknesses which served to frustrate, at least in part, the achievement of this purpose. The special legislative grants designed to encourage the development of specific aspects or special services are a case in point. Since only those boards with relatively greater financial resources could provide such facilities, the special grants were in one sense entirely contrary to the principle of equalization. Difficulties were experienced in administering the grant plan efficiently, the chief of which arose out of the determination of "approved cost". From the actual cost of operation were deducted certain receipts and expenditures and amounts upon which special legislative grants had been claimed. Since "approved cost" was subject to the approval of the Minister, this entailed laborious checking of the accounts of many thousands of school boards. Moreover, a basic part of the plan was the use of assessment to determine the percentage of approved cost to be paid in legislative grants. But, as is well known, assessments are not equalized on a provincial basis, and they vary from about 30 per cent to more than 100 per cent of actual values. Accordingly, the attempt to apply the principle of equalization in the distribution of legislative grants was to some extent nullified by inequalities in assessment in relation to actual value.

71. Our study revealed a number of other weaknesses in the specific grant plans for different types of schools. Consider first the grants to elementary schools. Those to rural schools achieved a much higher degree of equalization in the tax rates which it was necessary to levy locally than did grants to urban schools. The reason lay in the fact that grants to urban schools were graded according to population, not directly on the basis of assessment per classroom or according to any other measure of relative local financial resources for the support of elementary schools. For rural schools the minimum of 50 (or 45 in 1949) per cent of approved cost was relatively too high for the wealthier rural areas, some of which had local financial resources comparable to those of wealthy urban municipalities. By 1948 the limitation of \$115 per pupil of average attendance, which was applied to total approved cost, was below the average for the province, and in any case made no allowance for differences in capital charges. As a result, boards with low capital charges benefited, whereas boards with heavy capital charges found themselves severely restricted. Possibly the greatest weakness of the 1945 plan was the coarse grading of the percentages of approved costs upon which grants were calculated. Under the 1949 regulations,¹ for example, the five percentages for urban schools were 26, 31, 37, 45, and 55; an increase in population in an urban municipality could have resulted in a substantial decrease in the amount received in legislative grants. The grading was even coarser in the case of rural schools:

¹O. Reg. 64/49.

the four percentages used for 1949 were 45, 55, 71, and 89; a slight decrease in the assessment per classroom could have resulted in a board becoming eligible for a legislative grant of 89 per cent instead of 71 per cent of approved cost—an increase of 18 per cent of the total approved cost.

72. In the 1945 plan of distribution of grants to academic secondary schools, the grant of \$10 per pupil of average daily attendance was a weakness. Such an ungraded grant does not equalize, but merely perpetuates existing inequalities. Apparently this was recognized; at least the grant per pupil was discontinued in 1949. The second part of the original plan provided for grants on approved cost calculated on the basis of percentages ranging, by intervals of 5 per cent according to the mill-rate category, from 5 to 75 per cent (in 1949 from 15 to 75 per cent). But this did not equalize satisfactorily, apparently because the gradings did not permit sufficient aid to be given to secondary schools in poorer areas; this condition was recognized and partly corrected in the 1949 regulations. A section of the regulations reduced the assessment of rural sections, under specified conditions, to one-fifth of the equalized assessment, apparently in order to encourage the inclusion of rural areas in larger administrative units. This seems to have been an attempt to counterbalance that part of the grant plan which tended to discourage the formation of larger administrative units; under the mill-rate basis an increase in assessment meant a decrease in the mill rate and consequently a decreased grant unless the approved cost increased proportionately. Finally, the limit on approved cost of \$150 and \$200 per pupil of average attendance was a weakness for the reasons set out in the preceding paragraph in relation to elementary schools.

73. We need note only two major shortcomings of the 1945 grant plan for vocational schools. The grant on capital expenditures from current revenue and on capital charges was fixed at 50 per cent. This achieved no measure of equalization; in fact, it tended to nullify the effect of the first part of the grant (a graded percentage of salaries) which was apparently intended to equalize. Even the first part, however, did not achieve a satisfactory degree of equalization. The basis selected was not particularly efficient; salaries alone were considered, and grants were graded according to total amount paid in salaries. While the total of salaries paid is a valid measure of the size of a school, it bears only a very indirect relation to the local financial resources available for the support of vocational education.

74. Despite its weaknesses, the 1945 grant plan did achieve some measure of success in securing equalization of tax rates required to be levied locally to support elementary and secondary schools. And the substantial increase in provincial financial assistance materially aided school boards and municipal councils in a period of steadily increasing costs. The plan represented a radical change, and its considerable measure of success demonstrated that in general, although not necessarily in all details, it was based on sound principles of school financing.

CHAPTER XXVIII

OUR PROPOSED METHOD OF FINANCING THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMME

1. In preceding chapters we have made recommendations respecting the financing of specific phases of education. In this chapter we shall confine our attention mainly to matters relating to the financing of education not specifically dealt with elsewhere, in particular to local and provincial financial support of publicly supported elementary and post-elementary schools.

LOCAL FINANCIAL SUPPORT OF ELEMENTARY AND POST-ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

PRESENT METHODS OF FINANCING

2. As was stated in the preceding chapter, primary responsibility for financing education rests with local education authorities. Of the total annual budget of a local education authority, the amount in excess of legislative grants must be raised from local sources. The major part of the revenue obtained locally is derived, under *The Assessment Act*,¹ through a levy on the assessed value of lands and buildings and on business (based on the assessed value of the land occupied or used). The total assessed value of rateable property² as reported by elementary school boards³ for the calendar year 1948 was approximately \$3,500,000,000. The amounts available in different types of areas for the support of public and Roman Catholic separate schools are shown in Table 1.⁴ Local assessments, while admittedly not fully satisfactory for the purpose, do serve to indicate relative local financial resources and their uneven distribution over the province. Generally speaking, if we calculate on the basis of assessment per pupil of average attendance, cities have the greatest, and large semi-urban municipalities have the least, financial resources; and there is a

¹R.S.O., 1937, Ch. 272.

²Local, not equalized, assessment.

³*Report of the Minister of Education*, Ontario, 1948, pp. 168 and 175.

⁴Generally speaking, the sum of the assessments of a municipality for public and separate school purposes is also subject to taxation for the support of secondary schools. But, since not all parts of the province are included in high school districts, comparable data for the latter type of school are not available.

marked disparity between the resources available for the support of public schools and Roman Catholic separate schools.

3. For elementary school boards, the major local source of revenue is the rate on the assessed value of property as previously defined; but there are a number of other local sources of revenue, such as donations, subscriptions, and tuition fees. Under Section 112 of *The Public Schools Act*, public school boards in organized townships receive a township grant¹ of a

TABLE 1
LOCAL ASSESSMENTS FOR PUBLIC AND ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE
SCHOOL PURPOSES, 1948^a

<i>Type of Area</i>	<i>Public Schools</i>	<i>Roman Catholic Separate Schools</i>	<i>Total</i>
CITIES:			
Assessment	\$1,898,142,401	\$176,220,877	\$2,074,363,278
Percentage	58.7%	66.2%	59.3%
Assessment per pupil of average attendance	\$12,265	\$3,398	\$10,039
TOWNS AND VILLAGES:			
Assessment	\$404,033,498	\$36,637,093	\$440,670,591
Percentage	12.5%	13.8%	12.6%
Assessment per pupil of average attendance	\$5,003	\$1,366	\$4,096
LARGE SEMI-URBAN:			
Assessment	\$186,281,743	\$10,481,987	\$196,763,730
Percentage	5.8%	3.9%	5.6%
Assessment per pupil of average attendance	\$3,957	\$1,230	\$3,539
ORDINARY RURAL:			
Assessment	\$744,741,849	\$42,716,915	\$787,458,764
Percentage	23.0%	16.1%	22.5%
Assessment per pupil of average attendance	\$5,750	\$2,160	\$5,275
TOTAL:			
Assessment	\$3,233,199,491	\$266,056,872	\$3,499,256,363
Percentage	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Assessment per pupil of average attendance	\$7,845	\$2,487	\$6,741

^aAdapted from *Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario*, pp. 168 and 175.

specified amount per teacher. The amount required for the payment of these grants is raised by the township council through a common rate levied upon the taxable property, not included in an urban municipality or annexed to an urban municipality for school purposes, of the public school supporters of the whole township. The balance required by a public school board of a public school section in an organized township, less amounts to be received in legislative grants and from other sources, is

¹Section 111 of *The Public Schools Act* and Section 74 of *The Separate Schools Act*, with respect to county grants, were repealed in 1945.

levied and collected by the township council at the request of the board through a rate on the rateable property of the public school supporters of the section.

4. Public school boards in cities, towns, villages, and improvement districts are not entitled to receive township grants. Accordingly, the amount required by the public school board in such a unit, less amounts to be received in legislative grants and from other sources, is levied and collected by the local municipal council at the request of the board through a rate on the rateable property of the public school supporters of the unit.

5. Public school boards in unorganized townships and in unsurveyed territory do not, of course, receive township grants. They have, however, for school purposes, some of the powers of a municipal council. In these cases the public school board appoints an assessor, imposes rates upon the ratepayers of the section, and collects them or the sums which the inhabitants or others may have subscribed.

6. Roman Catholic separate school boards derive their revenue from local sources and legislative grants. They are not entitled to receive township grants nor, following repeal of the relevant section of *The Separate Schools Act* in 1945, county grants. A separate school board has power under the present *Separate Schools Act* to impose and levy school rates upon, and to collect rates and subscriptions from, persons sending children to or subscribing toward the support of the school or schools under its jurisdiction. It may appoint a collector to collect the school rates or subscriptions. The council of the township, village, town, or city must, under certain conditions, make up the deficiency arising from uncollected rates on land liable to assessment. Alternatively, a separate school board may require a municipal council to levy and collect the rates or taxes imposed by the board on the taxable property liable for these; and any expenses attending the assessment, collection, or payment of the school rates are borne by the municipal corporation. The municipal council, however, has no responsibility for the collection of subscriptions.

7. A high school or collegiate institute board derives its revenue from legislative grants, from rates on local taxable property, and from a number of other sources. The sum the board requires to be raised on local taxable property is obtained, subject to certain conditions, from the council or councils of the municipality or municipalities included in the high school district; each council then levies and collects the amount, or its proportionate part, on all the property rateable for school purposes in the municipality. The cost of the education of "county pupils" is paid by the county council, and the amount required for this purpose is levied and collected as part of the county rates in accordance with exceedingly complex provisions set forth in the Acts. Where an agricultural department is established in a high school, the council of the county in which the school is situated is required to pay the board \$500 each year, out of the general county levy,

for the purposes of this department. The council of a county may also make such other grants as it may deem expedient. Under certain conditions, a high school or collegiate institute board may charge fees for non-resident pupils—in some cases payable by the student, in others by the board of another high school district, and in others by the municipal council. Regulations made under *The Department of Education Act* govern the payment to a board by the province of the cost of the secondary school education of students residing in the territorial districts or on lands held by the Crown in right of Canada or Ontario.

8. The provisions for the financing of vocational schools and continuation schools are similar to, but not always identical with, those for high schools. For example, property taxable for the support of a continuation school established by a public or separate school board is limited to that of the supporters of the public or separate school, except that the cost of the education of "county pupils" is paid by the council of the county. In the case of a vocational school, the advisory vocational committee has certain controls over financing. Also, where separate schools exist in a school unit, the board of education must prepare separate budgets and requisitions for public schools and secondary schools, since, in the case of the former, only the property of public school supporters is liable for taxation. The provisions governing the financing of secondary schools are exceedingly complex as a consequence of the variety of such schools and the medley of types of units of administration and local education authorities and their relationship to municipal authorities.

RECOMMENDATIONS

9. We have accepted the principle that, to the fullest extent feasible, the control of education should be decentralized. We have applied this principle throughout the preceding chapters; for example, we have planned our proposed units of administration and the duties and powers of local education authorities so that the desired degree of decentralization may be possible of attainment. Our policy with respect to the financing of education is likewise determined by this principle. Thus, local education authorities must have sufficient financial resources and powers to enable them to discharge satisfactorily the greater responsibilities with which we recommend they be charged.

10. In our opinion, the primary responsibility for financing education must continue to rest with local education authorities. We believe this is necessary to ensure any measure of real local control. The responsibility of the central authority must be to assist them financially through legislative grants and to distribute these grants in such a manner that the financial burden of providing education in public schools, separate schools, or post-elementary schools is equalized, to the fullest extent possible, within the groups of supporters of each of these respective types of schools throughout the province.

11. The data of Table 1 illustrate the relative ability of local education authorities in different types of areas to support education. More detailed figures are given in Table 2, based on assessment per capita. Although variations in methods of assessing may account for part of the disparity, it is nevertheless evident from the data of Table 2 that within each type of municipality as well as among types the range in wealth is very great. We need not press the point: the goal of decentralization cannot be attained unless there is some provision, in the main through legislative grants, whereby less wealthy sections of the province may be assisted in the discharge of their responsibilities with respect to education.

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL ASSESSMENT UPON WHICH TAXES WERE LEVIED IN 1949^a

<i>Assessment per Capita</i>	<i>Cities</i>	<i>Towns</i>	<i>Villages</i>	<i>Suburban Townships</i>	<i>Rural Townships</i>	<i>Improve- ment Districts</i>	<i>Park Com- missions</i>
\$							
Less than 100					6		
100 - 199		2	3		52		
200 - 299		8	11		61	2	
300 - 399		17	18	2	40	1	
400 - 499		21	36	4	40	2	
500 - 599	2	34	33	4	35		
600 - 699	3	21	13	3	48		
700 - 799	5	15	17	4	42		
800 - 899	3	12	10		51		
900 - 999	7	8	2	4	40	2	1
1000 - 1499	8	3	5		110	2	1
1500 - 1999		4	3		21	1	
2000 - 2999	1		1		1	1	
3000 - 3999						2	
4000 - 4999							
5000 and over		2				1	
TOTAL	29	147	152	21	547	14	2

^aData are not available for a number of municipalities.

12. To a certain degree, however, equalization of the financial burden can be achieved locally by other methods. One of the major advantages of larger units of administration for educational purposes is that they broaden the base of local financial support. Experience has shown that the smaller the units of administration the greater are the inequalities in financial resources. This is one of the major reasons why we have proposed the organization of units of administration as large in area as we feel is consistent with the retention of local interest. The implementation of our plan for larger units of administration will in itself achieve a considerable degree of equalization in the local financing of education.

Local Sources of Revenue

13. We have studied carefully the possibility of securing new sources of revenue locally for the support of education, such as, for example, special

sales and amusement taxes, taxes based on income, and poll taxes. But, while some additional revenue could be obtained from such taxes, certain of their features render them unsatisfactory for this purpose. They would not equalize; on the contrary, they would accentuate existing inequalities in local financial resources. Some types are very inequitable, and would bear most heavily on those persons in the community who are least able to pay. The local use of other types is precluded by difficulties of assessment and collection. Moreover, in many cases these sources are already taxed by the Federal or Provincial Government or both and an additional tax for municipal purposes would not be practicable. Finally, for perhaps the majority of local education authorities, the amount of revenue to be derived from such sources would be relatively small.

14. Accordingly, we propose that the basis of local financial support of publicly supported elementary and post-elementary education under the reorganized educational system continue to be assessment on land and buildings, and business assessment, as defined in *The Assessment Act*. But we believe that a major change should be made with respect to the definition of rateable property liable to taxation for the support of elementary schools. We explained in an earlier chapter¹ the difficulties associated with any attempt to apportion the taxes derived from such bodies as corporations between public and separate schools, and we proposed that, for school purposes, the rateable property of such bodies be liable to taxation for the support of post-elementary schools only. We recommend

- (a) *that for the support of elementary schools rates be levied only on the rateable property² assessed against one or more individual ratepayers (designated in our recommendations as "individual" assessment);*
- (b) *that local rates for the support of elementary schools be not levied on the rateable property² of corporations, boards, authorities, committees, commissions, public utilities, or bodies corporate or politic (designated in our recommendations as "non-individual" assessment).³*

15. In addition to taxes levied on the non-individual assessment, as defined above, revenue for the support of local post-elementary schools must be derived locally from other sources. Further, since we have recommended that the power of determining the amount to be expended on post-elementary education be vested in the elected representatives of all ratepayers of the region, we consider it just and a necessary safeguard

¹See Chapter XIX.

²Rateable property, as used herein, refers to the whole of the assessment for real property, business, or other assessments made under *The Assessment Act*, R.S.O., 1937, Ch. 272, Secs. 2-3.

³While our proposed reorganization of the educational system is not dependent upon the implementation of this recommendation, the allocation of taxes derived from public utilities and corporate bodies, as proposed herein, is intended to be dependent upon implementation of our recommendations with respect to the reorganization of the educational system.

against extravagance that at least part of the financial responsibility for the support of post-elementary education be borne by all ratepayers. We therefore recommend

that for the support of post-elementary schools, rates be levied on the whole of the assessment, both individual and non-individual.

16. However, non-individual assessment will, in accordance with our earlier recommendation, be exempted from rates imposed and levied for the support of elementary schools. In all fairness, therefore, an additional rate, equivalent to that levied on individual assessment for the support of elementary schools, must be imposed and levied upon the non-individual assessment. We recommend

that the amount of revenue required to be raised locally by a post-elementary education authority for the support of post-elementary schools be obtained as follows:

- (i) through the levy in each municipality on the non-individual assessment of each public school area or part thereof of a rate equal to that levied¹ on the individual assessment of the public elementary school supporters of the public school area or part thereof for the support of public elementary schools only;*
- (ii) through the levy in each municipality within the region of a rate on both individual and non-individual assessment sufficient to realize the difference between the local share of the cost of post-elementary education in the region and the amount realized by the levy provided for in (i) above.*

Thus, the rate levied on the non-individual assessment of each public school area will consist of two parts—a general post-elementary school rate and a rate equal to the public elementary school rate—but the total revenue so realized will be assigned to the support of post-elementary schools only.

17. Our discussion of the specific powers of local education authorities and municipal councils in relation to the financing of the local share of the cost of elementary and post-elementary education has been given in a preceding chapter.² We recommended that the present division of powers and responsibilities in regard to current and capital expenditures be continued, subject to a number of changes made necessary by our proposals for the reorganization of the units of educational administration. As we have seen, the present system has evolved slowly and has stood the test of time. In our opinion, it operates efficiently and with general satisfaction, and we see no reason to recommend any fundamental change.

Equalization of Assessment

18. We have recommended that revenue for the local support of publicly supported elementary and post-elementary schools be derived through rates levied upon rateable property, and have accepted the general principle

¹During the current or preceding calendar year, whichever proves to be more feasible.

²See Chapter XI.

that the central authority should, through financial assistance to local education authorities in the form of legislative grants, equalize as far as possible the local burden of supporting education. This raises a question of fundamental importance. Unless there is uniformity in the bases of assessment and equalization of assessment within and among the units of administration, inequities will result.

19. Even a cursory examination of the present system of assessing property in Ontario reveals weaknesses. Our attention was drawn to existing inequalities by a number of briefs, for example Brief 2, submitted by the Corporation of the Town of Mimico, and Brief 15, submitted by Mr. A. J. B. Gray, then Deputy Minister of Municipal Affairs. Assessors are appointed by municipal councils or, in certain cases, by school boards. No special qualifications governing appointment to this office are prescribed by the Provincial Government, nor are uniform methods to be followed by assessors prescribed by a central body or by the Provincial Government. With some degree of success, however, an attempt has been made to equalize the assessments within some counties, but this does not necessarily mean equalization between counties. Even within a county, according to Brief 15, assessments vary widely: "A review of comparative municipalities within a county reveals that the assessed valuations of the properties vary from 40% to 120% of the estimated actual value."

20. In Brief 15, Mr. Gray stated:

The Commission will readily see how difficult it is, due to the lack of uniformity in the principles followed by assessors, to compare the assessable wealth of one municipality with another, and how impossible it is to distribute grants equitably on the basis of assessment, if these non-uniform principles still continue to be allowed or followed. For example, a wealthy community can, by assessing on a low percentage basis of value with high expenditures obtain a higher share of grants from the Province than a poorer municipality with a lower basis of expenditures but assessed on a higher percentage basis of value due to the need for creating a favourable borrowing position.

He concluded:

It would, therefore, seem that insofar as councils, administrative officials and government departments are concerned, the equalization of assessment and taxation is the first important step to be taken . . .

21. Our studies have convinced us of the validity of these statements. From information at our disposal we have concluded that, throughout the province, assessed valuation of property may vary from as low as 5 to more than 100 per cent of actual value. No system of financing education—or any other service—can function equitably and efficiently when based on assessed value of property determined as it is at present. Yet, at least part of the cost of education must be defrayed from revenue derived from local sources if decentralization of the control of education is to be achieved. Since there is no other local source as suitable for this purpose as a tax on property, the solution, in our opinion, lies in the equalization on a provincial basis of assessment on rateable property. We recommend

- (a) *that necessary measures be adopted by the Provincial Government to achieve, on a provincial basis, equalization of assessment of rateable property within the meaning of The Assessment Act;*
- (b) *that, until equalization of assessment on a provincial basis has been effected, efforts be made locally to achieve equalization of assessments within each proposed school region.*

Budgets and Development Plans

22. In a previous chapter,¹ we outlined suggested duties of local education authorities in relation to the preparation of budgets for local purposes. At present, a school board is not required to submit a budget to the Department of Education; since legislative grants are based on approved expenditures of the preceding calendar year, the board is required to submit only a statement of revenue and expenditure or of receipts and disbursements. It not infrequently happens that the statement is not forwarded to the Department of Education until late in the succeeding year. Where the financial statement of a school board is submitted at a late date and payment of the legislative grant is withheld until it is received and the expenditures are checked and approved, the board may find itself in financial difficulties, particularly if a large portion of its revenue is derived from legislative grants. Until a financial statement has been received, the Department of Education has no satisfactory basis upon which to calculate, or pay even a part of, the legislative grant due a board. Further, the Department must estimate the total amount to be appropriated for legislative grants well in advance of the opening of the session of the Legislature, and for this purpose needs information concerning expenditures made by local education authorities. It would undoubtedly assist a school board to finance its expenditures if the annual legislative grant were paid in quarterly instalments. Any necessary adjustment could be made in the final quarterly payment. We recommend

- (a) *that each local education authority be required to submit to the Minister of Education by December first of each year an interim financial statement, showing actual expenditures for the first ten months and anticipated expenditures for the final two months of the calendar year, for tentative approval for legislative grant purposes;*
- (b) *that consideration be given by the Minister of Education to the advisability of paying the annual legislative grant to a local education authority in quarterly instalments and to the feasibility of basing the payment of at least the first instalment on the interim financial statement submitted by the local education authority.*

23. In view of an imminent and substantial increase in school enrolment, which may well continue for 15 to 20 years, and a greater decentralization in the control of education, the Minister of Education will need

¹See Chapter XI.

to have information on a provincial basis regarding the cost of prospective developments if he is to make wise, efficient, and economical use of the provincial funds to be disbursed under his direction. Accordingly, we recommend

that the Minister of Education require each local education authority to estimate from time to time the immediate and prospective needs of education in its area and to submit to him¹ proposals showing the action it intends to take and estimates of the probable cost thereof.

Such information would be equally useful and valuable to a local education authority. In an era of high costs and increasing demands, such as that which now prevails, estimates based upon accurate information are essential.

Township and County Levies and Grants

24. We have explained in preceding sections the existing procedure by which township and county councils assist local education authorities by means of grants. The township grant was designed to equalize the cost of establishing and maintaining all the public schools in a township. It has had only a fair degree of success, and has become unnecessary as a result of the establishment of township school areas and the substantial increase in legislative grants in recent years. The county grants on behalf of secondary education were necessitated by the patchwork system of units of administration for secondary schools. The need for these grants will disappear under the proposed reorganization of units of administration, and any desired degree of equalization may be secured through the proper choice of method for the distribution of legislative grants.

25. We therefore recommend

that all statutory provisions requiring grants to be paid by municipal councils to local education authorities be repealed.

Audits of School Accounts and Transactions

26. Under a recent amendment to *The Municipal Act*, the accounts and transactions of a school board must be audited by the auditors appointed by the council of the municipality. This change was intended to improve the quality of the auditing; and, for the most part, the desired result has been obtained, except possibly where the municipal auditor has been unfamiliar with methods of school accounting and financing. Under our proposed reorganization of the administration of education, the boundaries of the units of administration will not necessarily be conterminous with those of municipalities, and the existing procedure would, we fear, be impracticable. Of course, school accounts and transactions should be audited by independent and qualified persons; but, on condition that those ap-

¹And to the regional board in the case of public school boards operating under a regional board of education.

pointed are competent, we can see no reason why they should be required to be municipal auditors. We recommend

that, for the purpose of auditing accounts and transactions, a local education authority be permitted to employ any qualified auditor who is not a member or employee of the authority.

PROVINCIAL FINANCIAL SUPPORT
OF ELEMENTARY AND POST-ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

27. The discussion in this section is restricted to the apportionment and distribution of legislative grants to local education authorities for elementary and post-elementary education. Recent amendments to *The Department of Education Act* give to the Minister of Education the power to make regulations, subject to the approval of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, “providing for the apportionment and distribution of all money appropriated by this Legislature for educational purposes” and “prescribing the conditions governing the payment of legislative grants”. Formerly, the basis for the distribution of legislative grants was set out in the statutes, although the method of distribution was determined by regulations in accordance therewith.

Special Legislative Grants

28. As we noted earlier, legislative grants to local education authorities are of two types, namely, general and special. The latter are distributed under separate regulations, and at present they are small in comparison with the former, although they are still substantial. For the fiscal year ending March 31, 1949, for example, the amounts paid in special grants were as shown in Table 3. In most cases, the payment is based on a fixed amount

TABLE 3
DISTRIBUTION OF SPECIAL LEGISLATIVE GRANTS, FISCAL YEAR 1948-49^a

<i>Basis</i>	<i>Amount</i>
<i>Public and Separate Schools</i>	
Agriculture	\$ 26,290. 80
Auxiliary Classes	102,708. 58
Industrial Arts and Crafts, General Shop, Home Economics	103,096. 45
Kindergarten Classes	24,692. 00
TOTAL	\$256,787. 83
<i>High Schools, Collegiate Institutes, and Continuation Schools</i>	
Agriculture	\$88,734. 52
Auxiliary Classes	13,102. 50
General Shop and Home Economics	97,647. 63
Night Schools	13,082. 81
TOTAL	\$212,567. 46

^aAdapted from *Public Accounts of the Province of Ontario*, Fiscal Year 1948-49.

per teacher, class, or pupil, or on the grading of accommodation and equipment. Since special legislative grants are not based on the principle of equalization, they tend to counteract the effect of the general legislative grants—for example, only wealthier communities are able to introduce the special services in connection with which special grants are paid. Experience following the discontinuance, in 1945, of the multiplicity of special grants has demonstrated that the specific phases of the educational programme formerly receiving special aid did not suffer under the new grant plan. Accordingly we recommend

that the payment of special legislative grants to local education authorities be discontinued.

General Legislative Grants

29. The scheme of general legislative grants announced in 1950 introduced a number of commendable new features. Since it is essentially an adaptation of the 1945 plan, save for a major change with respect to secondary schools, we need not describe it in detail. Our comments upon it must be restricted for another reason; the regulations were issued at such a recent date that there has been no opportunity to determine their effect. The plan can be adequately evaluated only after it has been in operation for at least one full calendar year.

(a) Elementary Schools

30. Under the 1950 plan, the distribution of general legislative grants to boards of public and separate schools continues to be based on population in the case of urban municipalities, and on assessment "per classroom unit" in the case of boards of rural school sections. However, boards of elementary schools in larger units of administration and in urban municipalities having a population of less than 2,500 receive grants on the rural basis.

31. The 1950 grant plan has remedied some of the weaknesses of the 1945 grant plan: the number of groups in the schedule of percentages has been greatly increased, and consequently the differences between percentages are much smaller; and "approved cost", upon which grants are calculated, has been defined in terms of a few specific expenditures which can be readily identified.

32. Nevertheless, the 1950 plan may be criticized on a number of points. The population basis has been continued for urban municipalities, despite the fact that population is not a valid measure of relative wealth or need. A grant of \$16 per pupil of average daily attendance has been introduced. This grant is not designed to equalize, since all boards receive the same amount per pupil. Moreover, the amount is sufficient to diminish considerably the equalizing effect of the part of the grant based on approved cost. The per pupil grant has another effect—it favours Roman Catholic separate

schools because of their relatively lower cost per pupil. In 1948 the cost per pupil of average daily attendance was \$129.04 for public schools, as compared with \$72.64 for Roman Catholic separate schools. A grant of \$16 per pupil, therefore, is equal to 12.4 per cent of the cost per pupil for public schools and 22.0 per cent of that for Roman Catholic separate schools—a differential of nearly 10 per cent of total cost per pupil in favour of the latter. Another change has been made with the same effect. Under the 1945 plan, receipts other than those from provincial or municipal sources derived from taxation were deducted in determining approved “cost of operating”; under the 1950 plan, only amounts which would otherwise be duplicated are deducted. Therefore, under the 1950 scheme, a board might have derived all its revenue from donations and subscriptions and yet the amounts disbursed, as defined under “approved cost”, would be eligible for general legislative grants.

33. Under the 1950 plan, “approved cost” includes two provisions relating to capital expenditures: disbursements in respect of principal, interest, and other charges on debentures and capital loans; and, subject to a limitation based on total cost of operating, disbursements in respect of capital outlays and repairs paid from current funds. The latter provision means that the central authority will pay the total grant on certain capital outlays in the year immediately following the expenditure.

34. The usual limitations on grants payable to a board have been continued. The total of special and general legislative grants is limited to not more than 90 per cent (or 95 per cent where the assessment per classroom unit is less than \$20,000) of the cost of operating. Except in the case of a board of a larger unit of administration, another limitation is that the total general legislative grant (not including special grants) shall not exceed the difference between the cost of operating and the amount of the township grant. A number of limitations on grants are to be found in the definition of “approved cost”: instructional salaries are limited to \$75 per pupil of average daily attendance; and, as noted, disbursements in respect of capital outlays and repairs paid from current funds are also limited, since such expenditures are subject, in specified cases, to reduction by the amount that the cost of operating exceeds the total amount obtained by multiplying \$115 by the number representing the average daily attendance.

(b) Secondary Schools

35. Since in a number of respects the 1950 grant plan for secondary schools is similar to that for elementary schools, we need refer only to its distinctive features. It has effected a change of considerable significance in that under it all types of secondary schools will receive grants on the same basis, although not necessarily in the same amount or on the same percentage of operating cost. As we note later under specific points, a differential is maintained between continuation, high, and vocational

schools—possibly a recognition of the existing differences in costs per pupil.¹

36. The general legislative grant to secondary schools is divided into two parts: a grant of a percentage of approved cost;² and a grant per pupil of average daily attendance. Both grants are graded, but, for some reason not known to us, on different bases. The grant on approved cost is graded according to “population per municipality”, except that, where the population per municipality is under 1,500, assessment per capita is taken into consideration. On the other hand, the grant per pupil is graded according to assessment per capita.³ In each of the two parts the grants are further divided on another basis, as set out below.

37. The grants of a percentage of approved cost are varied according to type of school and type of municipality. The board of a continuation school is paid a grant of 75 per cent of approved cost where the school is in a territorial district or on an island, but only 50 per cent where the school is located elsewhere. For other secondary schools, with the exception of certain capital expenditures and capital charges in the case of vocational schools, the percentage⁴ of “approved cost” differs as between urban and rural municipalities and, in the case of urban municipalities, as between a municipality in a county and one in a territorial district. A separate schedule of percentages is set for the board of a high school district not operating a school.

38. Grants per pupil of average daily attendance⁵ are graded according to type of school (high, continuation, and vocational), as well as according to assessment per capita and, in the case of high schools, also according to population and type of municipality. The purpose appears to be to equalize the local burden of taxation for school purposes and to encourage the formation of larger units of administration.

39. The only major limitation on grants to secondary schools, other than the general provision that “approved cost” shall be subject to the approval of the Minister, is that on grants calculated on the basis of per pupil of average daily attendance. Under Section 20 (3) of the regulations, the grant payable on this basis “shall not exceed an amount equal to 120 per cent of the instructional salaries paid in the preceding year”.

DISTRIBUTION OF GENERAL LEGISLATIVE GRANTS UNDER THE REORGANIZED EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

40. Since we have recommended against seeking new local sources of revenue for the support of elementary and post-elementary education, any

¹*Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1948, p. 91.*

²“Approved cost” is restricted, and does not include payments for salaries and certain other current expenditures.

³At least four bases or measures of local financial resources have been employed in the 1950 grant plan: population of the municipality in which the school is located; population per municipality in the unit of administration; assessment per classroom unit; and assessment per capita.

⁴The range is from 15 to 75 per cent (or to 85 per cent under certain conditions).

⁵The range is from \$40 to \$150 (or to \$170 under certain conditions).

additional costs of publicly supported education must be met either through increased grants from the province or through a higher local rate levied on rateable property. While there is a definite limit to the amount of revenue which may be obtained from either source, the province has wider taxing powers and greater financial resources than local education authorities. On the other hand, we have recommended that control of education, including finance, be decentralized. Under these circumstances, the central authority would be at the mercy of local education authorities unless primary responsibility for financing education is placed upon the latter. We do not believe that expenditures of local education authorities should be controlled by the central authority, or that expenditures of the central authority should be dictated by the action of local education authorities. Any method of financing education which prescribes a uniform local contribution either in terms of dollars or tax rate is open to the serious objection that any increases in expenditure must be wholly defrayed by the central authority. This sooner or later would result in an impossible situation; either the central authority would find itself unable to provide the necessary revenue and be forced to change the method, or it would be compelled to impose restrictions which, in effect, would remove control from local education authorities. As a principle to be followed, we propose that the cost of education be shared by local education authorities and the central authority. Revenue available from the latter source is subject to the will of the Legislature as to the amount to be voted and to the imposition, through regulations, of limits on the responsibility of the central authority to assist in financing in whole or in part the educational programme of local education authorities. Control over the amount of revenue to be derived from local sources may be safely left to local ratepayers who, under our recommendations, will elect the members of the local education authority. Moreover, the local education authority should be free to expend, at its discretion, all moneys received—whether derived from local or provincial sources—to provide an adequate educational programme.

41. Thus, the financial responsibility of the central authority will be to assist local education authorities, through legislative grants, to provide the necessary educational facilities. Since the primary financial responsibility will rest with local education authorities, their expenditures, in whole or in part, seem to us to be the most suitable basis for determining the amount of assistance to be given by the central authority. It should be required, however, that expenditures of a local education authority be subject to the approval of the Minister before they become eligible for legislative grant. We do not favour the use of total expenditures as the basis: the task of checking all the items of expenditure is too laborious and time-consuming. It is better, in our opinion, to specify the major items of expenditure upon the total of which grants will be paid; these can normally be checked and limitations for grant purposes be imposed without difficulty by the central authority.

42. If the total of specified items of expenditure is to be used as the basis and the central authority is to bear a share of the cost, the most equitable plan for the distribution of legislative grants is, in our opinion, that in which grants are calculated on the basis of a percentage of the total of the approved expenditures of a local education authority on specified items. The percentages, if the fullest possible equalization of the local burden of taxation is to be achieved, should be graded according to local need expressed in terms of local financial resources available and educational facilities required.

43. It is not easy to devise a fully satisfactory measure of local need, as defined above. Very few of the bases used in the multitude of grant plans we studied seem to us to be suitable. Population, number of children, number of pupils of average daily attendance, number of teachers, type of municipality, and other bases of a like nature do not take into consideration the wealth of the district and hence are unsuitable.

44. Under the conditions we have specified, the equalized assessment of rateable property of the unit of administration is, however, a valid measure of total local financial resources. But this is only part of the picture. It does not take into consideration the educational facilities required in the unit. For example, the total equalized assessment of two regions may be approximately equal, yet the number of children to be educated in one region may be twice that in the other. Obviously, therefore, if grants calculated on the same percentage of approved expenditures were to be given, the existing inequalities would be perpetuated. A natural measure of the educational facilities required is the number of pupils of average daily attendance. However, small schools often require a proportionately greater number of teachers than do larger schools; and in wealthier areas a proportionately greater number of teachers may be employed. Accordingly, neither the number of teachers employed nor the total number of pupils of average daily attendance is completely satisfactory. As a more valid measure, we propose the use of the number of "teacher units", calculated on the basis of average daily attendance according to a schedule (illustrated in Table 4), as a measure of the educational facilities required by a local education authority for each school under its jurisdiction.

45. As a measure of local need, we propose that the "equalized assessment per teacher unit" be used, where "equalized assessment" means the total equalized assessment on which rates are levied for the support of the school or schools over which the local education authority has jurisdiction. The total equalized assessment must, of course, be divided by the total number of teacher units of the administrative area to obtain the "equalized assessment per teacher unit". As a basis for distribution, we propose that the legislative grant paid to a local education authority be equal to a percentage (graded according to equalized assessment per teacher unit) of the approved expenditures of the authority. We suggest that in calculating

the number of teacher units the average daily attendance of the preceding calendar year be used, and that approved expenditures be deemed to include, subject to the approval of the Minister, only specified items of expenditure¹ of the preceding calendar year, with the possible exception of capital expenditures.²

TABLE 4

ILLUSTRATIVE SCHEDULE: CALCULATION OF NUMBER OF TEACHER UNITS

(a) *Elementary School Level*^a

<i>Average Daily Attendance</i>	<i>Number of Teacher Units</i>
25 pupils or less	One teacher
25 to 100 pupils	Calculate on the basis of one teacher for each 25 pupils
100 to 280 pupils	Count 4 teachers for the first 100 pupils; for the remainder calculate on the basis of one teacher for each additional 30 pupils
Over 280 pupils	Count 10 teachers for the first 280 pupils; for the remainder calculate on the basis of one teacher for each additional 32 pupils

(b) *Post-elementary School Level*^b

<i>Average Daily Attendance</i>	<i>Number of Teacher Units</i>
25 pupils or less	Two teachers (or one teacher where only one is employed)
25 to 40 pupils	Count 2 teachers for the first 25 pupils; for the remainder calculate on the basis of one teacher for 15 pupils
Over 40 pupils	Count 3 teachers for the first 40 pupils; for the remainder calculate on the basis of one teacher for each additional 24 pupils

^aCalculated separately for each school.

^bCalculated separately for each secondary school, junior college, and junior college department.

46. Although in our subsequent major recommendations we have used expenditures of the preceding calendar year as the basis for the distribution of legislative grants, we feel that serious consideration should be given by the government to the following alternative basis for use in the case of capital expenditures. Capital outlays for school buildings and equipment, as we noted in an earlier chapter, have been relatively heavy during recent years. Imminent increases in school population, which will probably extend over a number of years, will mean that a building programme of substantial proportions will be necessary, first at the elementary school level, and later at the secondary school and junior college levels. If, as is the practice today, the capital required is raised through the issuance of debentures, the burden of principal, interest, and other annual charges will be

¹See paragraphs 54 and 55.

²See paragraph 47.

heavy, and municipalities will be saddled with huge debts. Fixed charges of this type severely handicap a school board in its attempt to supply additional services or even to maintain those existing. We need not stress the point; memories of the situation which developed in the depression years remain vivid. Although the province pays a share of the capital charges, under the present system¹ the total debenture issue and the capital charges become a responsibility of the municipality. The total cost to a local education authority may, over the life of the debenture issue, be double the amount realized from the sale of the debentures. Since the cost of the annual capital charges, including repayment of principal, is shared by the central and local education authorities, each party may expend in total an amount twice as great as its share of the original capital outlay. For example, where the legislative grant is fixed at 50 per cent of approved cost, the central authority may pay in legislative grants an amount equal to the total original capital outlay and the local authority may also expend in total an amount equal to the total original capital outlay.

47. But capital expenditures may be financed in a way which would, as far as we can determine, obviate the necessity of local municipalities assuming long-term indebtedness and, at the same time, decrease the total amount which the province would normally pay in future years on behalf of capital expenditures for school purposes. Despite its apparent advantages, however, the method represents such a radical departure from accepted practice in this province and involves so many complex administrative problems, such as the establishment of a schedule of priorities for capital expenditures, that we hesitate to put it forward except as a procedure worthy of serious consideration. We recommend

that the Legislature give serious consideration to the advisability of

- (i) *paying legislative grants on amounts disbursed by local education authorities from current funds on capital outlays and repairs in the calendar year during which the amounts are expended;*
- (ii) *making provisions whereby local education authorities would be permitted, subject to the approval of the Minister of Education, to finance capital expenditures in whole or in part from current revenues or reserve funds;²*
- (iii) *paying to a local education authority in each calendar year, at the percentage rate fixed for other approved expenditures, a legislative grant on the total capital expenditures made by the authority from current revenues or reserve funds—the difference between the amount of the said total capital expenditures and the amount paid in legislative grants thereon not to be eligible for a legislative grant in that or any subsequent year.*

¹Note change in the 1950 grant plan, previously mentioned.

²This would necessitate an amendment to the school Acts to permit a local education authority to set up such reserves.

Apportionment by the Legislature of Funds Appropriated by It for Educational Purposes

48. We recommend

that, from the total amount appropriated annually by the Legislature for purposes of education, there be apportioned by the Legislature

- (i) amounts for such specific educational purposes, other than those specified in (ii) and (iii) below, as it deems expedient;*
- (ii) an amount to be disbursed in the form of legislative grants to assist local education authorities to finance education in the post-elementary schools under their jurisdiction;*
- (iii) the remainder for disbursement in the form of legislative grants to assist local education authorities to finance education in the elementary schools¹ under their jurisdiction.*

49. With respect to the amount to be apportioned for the support of elementary and post-elementary education, respectively, we recommend

- (a) that the total amount apportioned by the Legislature for the support of elementary schools be approximately equal to 50 per cent of the total approved cost of operating² such schools¹ for the preceding calendar year;*
- (b) that the total amount apportioned by the Legislature for the support of post-elementary schools be approximately equal to 60 per cent of the total approved cost of operating² such schools³ for the preceding calendar year.*

These recommendations, we fully realize, may mean a substantial increase in the amounts to be appropriated by the Legislature. Our studies have convinced us that assistance to this extent from the province is necessary if the imposition of an almost unbearable burden of local taxation on property is to be avoided. Although the provincial share may seem to some to be too high, yet it is comparable to that borne by the central authority in England and Wales and in a number of other jurisdictions.

Distribution of Legislative Grants to Elementary Schools

50. A fundamental difficulty in determining a basis for the distribution of grants to elementary schools arises because of the existence of two forms of elementary schools—public and separate. Since both forms of school often operate in the same municipality and a separate school is a special form established through separation from a public school, it is not uncommon to find, perhaps inevitably, a feeling that the two are competing

¹Including grades I to VI inclusive, and kindergartens where established, but excluding nursery schools and classes.

²For definition of “cost of operating”, see subsequent sections.

³Including secondary schools, junior colleges, and part-time education.

types of schools and that grants are not equitably divided between them. Apparently no matter what basis has been adopted for the distribution of grants, supporters of public or separate schools—upon rare occasions, both—have claimed that they were deprived of an equitable share of the total amount. Briefs submitted to us (for example, 113, 117, 145, 146, 171, and 201) bear ample evidence of the difficulty of determining a satisfactory basis for the distribution of these grants. Practically all possible bases of division have been tried: average daily attendance, in the Separate Schools Act of 1863; expenditures, under the 1945 grant plan; a combination of the two, under the 1950 grant plan; and a host of others in intervening years. Experience would indicate that the problem has been considered incapable of solution in a manner entirely satisfactory to all.

51. The primary difficulty is to determine the respective total amounts to be allotted to public and separate schools. We feel, as indeed was recommended to us in Briefs 113 and 201, that the best solution is to divide the total amount voted by the Legislature for the support of elementary schools into two sums, one for the support of public and the other for the support of separate schools. We believe that this division should be made annually by the Legislature as soon as the total amount for the support of all elementary schools has been apportioned. We recommend

that the total amount apportioned by the Legislature for the support of elementary schools be divided annually by the Legislature into two sums: one for the support of the public (including Protestant separate) elementary schools of the province; and the other for the support of the Roman Catholic separate elementary schools of the province.

52. What should be the basis for the primary division as between public and separate schools? Reference to the statutes in effect at the time of Confederation does not provide an answer, since such a division was apparently not contemplated at that time; the division specified in the Separate Schools Act of 1863 was local, that is, in each "City, Town, Village, or Township". The basis suggested in Brief 113, submitted by the Inter-Church Committee on Protestant-Roman Catholic Relations, was average daily attendance for the immediately preceding calendar year. On this basis, the grants¹ paid to public schools in 1948 would have been \$18,030,466 as compared with \$19,051,804 actually paid; and to Roman Catholic separate schools \$4,232,687, as compared with \$3,211,349 actually paid. This represents a decrease and an increase, respectively, of approximately \$1,000,000. Further, if this basis had been used in 1948 and an amount equal to 50 per cent—the proportion we recommend—of the aggregate of the disbursements from current funds by boards of trustees during 1947 for all elementary schools had been taken as the total amount of legislative grants, Roman Catholic separate schools would have received in legislative grants 65.2

¹Calculations based on grants as reported on p. 94 of the *Report of the Minister of Education, Ontario, 1948*.

per cent, as compared with 40.3 per cent for public schools, of disbursements from their current funds in 1948. A different basis was suggested in Brief 201, submitted by the Joint Legislation Committee of the Grand Orange Lodges of Ontario East and West. This Committee suggested a division in proportion to total provincial assessment for public and Roman Catholic separate school purposes. If this basis had been adopted in 1948, the grants paid to Roman Catholic separate schools would have been approximately \$1,500,000 less than the total amount actually paid, and the grants to public schools would have been increased by an equal amount. Public schools would have received in legislative grants 38.7 per cent, and Roman Catholic separate schools 21.8 per cent, of their disbursements from current funds in that year. Although a primary division was referred to in Brief 146, submitted by the Ontario Catholic Education Council, no specific suggestions or recommendations with respect to a basis of division were made.

53. We cannot accept as equitable either of the bases suggested above for a primary division. In accordance with the principles which we believe should govern the general distribution of legislative grants, we recommend *that the amounts of the sums to be apportioned by the Legislature for the support of public elementary (including Protestant separate) schools and Roman Catholic separate elementary schools, respectively, be calculated as follows:*

- (i) (1) *for public (including Protestant separate) schools, the amount obtained by applying a specified percentage to the aggregate of the amounts approved by the Minister of Education for legislative grant purposes and paid during the preceding calendar year by public (including Protestant separate) elementary school boards¹ in salaries to teachers, in capital charges for buildings and plant equipment, and in transportation costs;*
- (2) *for Roman Catholic separate schools, the amount obtained by applying a specified percentage (which shall be the same as that in (1) above) to the aggregate of the amounts approved by the Minister of Education for legislative grant purposes and paid during the preceding calendar year by Roman Catholic separate school boards¹ in salaries to teachers, in capital charges for buildings and plant equipment, and in transportation costs;*
- (ii) *after these two amounts have been apportioned, the remainder of the total amount appropriated by the Legislature for the support of all elementary schools shall be divided between public (including Protestant separate) schools and Roman Catholic separate*

¹Including expenditures in respect of grades I to VI inclusive, and kindergartens where established, but not in respect of nursery schools and classes.

schools on the basis of a specified amount per pupil of average daily attendance¹ for the preceding calendar year.

54. With reference to the distribution of the total amount appropriated by the Legislature for legislative grants to elementary school boards, we recommend

(a) *that the sum apportioned for the support of public (including Protestant separate) schools be distributed each year to the various boards thereof on the following basis:*

- (i) *to each board, in general legislative grants, a percentage of the cost of operating, as hereinafter defined, the school or schools under its jurisdiction for the immediately preceding calendar year;*
- (ii) *the said percentage shall be determined by application of the following formula²*

$$\text{Grant percentage} = 100 - \frac{\text{Equalized Assessment per teacher unit}^3}{\text{Constant}}$$

where the number of teacher units is determined, as hereinbefore set forth, by reference to a scale based on the average daily attendance for the preceding calendar year;

- (iii) *the constant in the formula shall be determined annually in such manner that the total sum apportioned for the support of public (including Protestant separate) schools shall be distributed to the boards thereof;*
- (b) *that the sum apportioned for the support of Roman Catholic separate schools be distributed each year to the various boards thereof on the following basis:*
 - (i) *to each board, in general legislative grants, a percentage of the cost of operating, as hereinafter defined, the school or schools under its jurisdiction for the immediately preceding calendar year;*
 - (ii) *the said percentage shall be determined by application of the following formula:*

$$\text{Grant percentage} = 100 - \frac{\text{Equalized Assessment per teacher unit}}{\text{Constant}}$$

where the number of teacher units is determined, as hereinbefore set forth, by reference to a scale based on the average daily attendance for the preceding calendar year;

- (iii) *the constant in the formula shall be determined annually in such manner that the total sum apportioned for the support of Roman Catholic separate schools shall be distributed to the boards thereof;*

¹In grades I to VI inclusive, and in kindergartens where established.

²Or, as the Minister may deem expedient, in this and subsequent cases from a schedule of percentages calculated on the basis of this formula.

³As previously defined.

- (c) *that in no case shall the percentage for a public (including Protestant separate) school board or for a Roman Catholic separate school board be less than 10;*
- (d) *that for each public (including Protestant separate) school board and for each Roman Catholic separate school board the cost of operating for any calendar year shall be defined as the total of the following¹:*
 - (i) *the aggregate of the approved amount expended for teachers' salaries where, for each teacher, the salary shall be the lesser of the amount actually paid and the amount determined on the basis of the provincial schedule of minimum salaries;²*
 - (ii) *the approved amount expended for capital charges;*
 - (iii) *the approved amount expended for transportation of pupils;*
 - (iv) *the approved amount expended for equipment and supplies;*
 - (v) *an approved amount for maintenance, determined on the basis of a fixed sum per pupil of average daily attendance;*
- (e) *that, for legislative grant purposes, in no case shall the approved cost of operating for any calendar year be in excess of the total receipts during that year from provincial sources and from local sources derived from taxation (including, in the case of a Roman Catholic separate school board, receipts from subscriptions in lieu of taxation).*

Distribution of Legislative Grants to Post-elementary Schools

55. With reference to the distribution of the total amount appropriated by the Legislature for legislative grants to post-elementary school boards, we recommend

that the total sum appropriated by the Legislature for the support of post-elementary schools under the jurisdiction of local education authorities be distributed each year to the boards thereof on the following basis:

- (i) *to each board shall be paid, in general legislative grants, a percentage of the difference between the cost of operating, as hereinafter defined, the post-elementary school or schools under its jurisdiction for the immediately preceding calendar year and the aggregate of the amounts obtained by applying, in each municipality of the region, the mill rate for public elementary school purposes to the equalized assessment of property taxable for post-elementary education only;³*
- (ii) *the percentage shall be determined by application of the following formula:*

¹The only limitation for legislative grant purposes on the "cost of operating" elementary and post-elementary schools is that imposed on the amount expended for teachers' salaries. In our opinion, some general limitation for legislative grant purposes must be imposed, and the one we have suggested appears to be the most equitable and practicable.

²See Chapters XIX and XXIII.

³See paragraphs 14, 15, and 16.

$$\text{Grant percentage} = 100 - \frac{\text{Total Equalized Assessment per teacher unit}}{\text{Constant}}$$

where the number of teacher units is determined, as hereinbefore set forth, by reference to a scale based on the average daily attendance for the preceding calendar year, and where "total equalized assessment" includes the equalized assessment of all rateable property¹ in the region;

- (iii) the constant in the formula shall be determined annually in such manner that the total sum appropriated by the Legislature for the support of post-elementary schools shall be distributed to the boards thereof;
- (iv) in no case shall the percentage be less than 10;
- (v) for each board the cost of operating for any calendar year shall be defined as the total of the following:
 - (1) the aggregate of the approved amount expended for teachers' salaries where, for each teacher, the salary shall be the lesser of the amount actually paid and the amount determined on the basis of the provincial schedule of minimum salaries;²
 - (2) the approved amount expended for capital charges;
 - (3) the approved amount expended for transportation of students, and services in lieu thereof;
 - (4) the approved amount expended for equipment and supplies;
 - (5) an approved amount for maintenance, determined on the basis of a fixed sum per pupil of average daily attendance;
 - (6) the aggregate of the approved amount expended for salaries of the administrative officials of the board and, where a board conducts the supervision of education in the region, the approved amount expended for salaries of the supervisory officials of the board.

OTHER EXPENDITURES OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION RELATED TO THE OPERATION OF ELEMENTARY AND POST-ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

56. The general public normally considers that the amount paid in legislative grants constitutes the total contribution of the central authority to publicly supported elementary and post-elementary education. But legislative grants constitute only part of this contribution. A number of other expenditures are made by the Department of Education in aid of public education below the university level. The major amounts³ so expended during the fiscal year ending March 31, 1949, are given in Table 5.⁴ The

¹See paragraphs 15 and 16.

²See Chapter XXIII.

³In the case of certain expenditures, not all of the total is a proper charge against elementary and post-elementary education.

⁴Adapted from *Public Accounts of the Province of Ontario*, Fiscal Year 1948-49.

chief expenditures are those with respect to the superannuation of teachers, the administration and supervision of education, teacher training, technical institutes, special services, provincial schools for the blind and the deaf, and departmental examinations.

TABLE 5
MAJOR EXPENDITURES OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION RELATED TO
THE OPERATION OF ELEMENTARY AND POST-ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS,
FISCAL YEAR 1948-49

<i>Item</i>	<i>Amount</i>
Main Office and General Departmental Expenses ^a	\$ 231,993
Public and Separate Schools Branch	
Salaries, etc.	\$115,528
Inspection of Elementary Schools	733,560
Correspondence Courses	68,430
Railway School Cars	21,165
	938,683
High Schools and Collegiate Institutes Branch	115,733
Vocational Education Branch	
Salaries, etc.	\$102,881
Trade Schools	6,368
Provincial Institute of Mining	9,081
Provincial Institute of Textiles	47,114
Lakehead Technical Institute	45,720
Ryerson Institute of Technology	463,043
	674,207
Training Schools Branch (Normal Schools)	615,699
Ontario College of Education	375,000
Special Services	
Art	\$ 14,832
Audio-Visual Education	80,303
Auxiliary Education	44,238
Community Programmes ^b	205,895
Guidance	30,327
Music	26,857
Physical and Health Education	29,734
Summer Camps	39,276
Summer and Winter Courses for Teachers	119,947
	591,409
Departmental Examinations Branch	354,122
Text-books Branch	45,281
Ontario School for the Blind	158,964
Ontario School for the Deaf	306,740
Compassionate Allowances for Ex-Teachers	3,059
Minister's Salary	3,613
Teachers' and Inspectors' Superannuation Fund	2,109,538
TOTAL	\$6,524,041

^aExcluding expenditures of the Royal Commission on Education.

^bThis expenditure is not directly related to the work of the schools under the jurisdiction of local education authorities.

57. A number of expenditures of the Department of Education indirectly related to elementary and post-elementary education have not been included in Table 5. During the fiscal year 1948-49, they included the following amounts: Dominion-Provincial and Provincial training projects, \$95,523;

Provincial scholarships and Dominion-Provincial bursaries, \$149,770; transportation of students from territorial districts, \$13,292; and cost of education of non-resident pupils, \$264,972. The following expenditures should perhaps also be recorded, although it may be argued with some justification that they should be placed in a different category: Public Libraries Branch, \$47,673; Legislative Library, \$21,019; Public Records and Archives, \$16,652; Public and County Libraries, \$349,995; and Physical Fitness and Recreation, \$162,552.

58. Under our proposed reorganization of the educational system, the central authority must continue to provide services of the types described. Of those for which additional money will probably be required, we may cite superannuation of teachers, administration and supervision, teacher training, technical institutes, and special education. In the apportionment of the total amount voted for education, therefore, it will be necessary for the Legislature to appropriate amounts sufficient for the support of these and other specific services.

LEGISLATIVE GRANTS TO OTHER AGENCIES

59. As shown in Table 6, legislative grants, amounting in total to \$192,700 for the fiscal year 1948-49, are made through the Department of Education to a number of agencies. Although the amount granted to any particular organization is normally not large, the total so expended is substantial. We were unable to determine the bases upon which such assistance is granted or withheld or upon which the amount to be granted is calculated or otherwise determined; and, in a number of cases, we feel that the amounts expended are not properly chargeable to the Department of Education. In representations submitted to us, there were many requests for grants, or for increased grants, from the Department of Education.

60. We believe that the amount appropriated by the Legislature for grants to agencies other than local education authorities could be used more effectively, and with greater equity, if the merits and financial needs of all organizations similar to those listed in Table 6 were reviewed, and if grants were apportioned in accordance with the findings. We therefore recommend

- (a) *that the Central Advisory Council review, and report to the Minister of Education upon, the grants at present made to special agencies, and advise him as to the merits thereof;*
- (b) *that, in future, requests for such grants, or for an increase in the amount of grant, made to the Minister of Education by such agencies be referred to the Central Advisory Council for advice as to the merits thereof.*

LEGISLATIVE GRANTS BY OTHER DEPARTMENTS OF GOVERNMENT

61. We pointed out in Chapter XIV that other departments of government have, in various ways, become associated with education in publicly

supported schools. The departments of Health, Agriculture, Labour, and Public Welfare, for example, spend large sums on activities closely related to those conducted under the jurisdiction of the Department of Education. In the fiscal year 1948-49, the Department of Health expended \$17,224 in grants to county councils for school medical inspection and \$18,451 in grants to local boards of health for school dental services; the Department

TABLE 6
LEGISLATIVE GRANTS TO OTHER AGENCIES, 1948-49^a

Agency	Amount
Art Gallery of Toronto	\$ 6,000
Associated High School Boards of the Province of Ontario	250
Association Canadienne-Française d'Education d'Ontario	1,600
Boy Scouts Association	5,000
Canadian Association for Adult Education	5,000
Canadian Bureau for the Advancement of Music	1,000
Canadian Education Association	8,500
Canadian Library Association	2,000
Canadian National Institute for the Blind	60,000
Frontier College	5,000
Institut Canadien-Français d'Ottawa	200
League of the Empire—expenses in connection therewith	400
National Society for the Deaf and Hard of Hearing	12,000
Ontario Educational Association	5,000
Ontario Federation of Home and School Associations	3,000
Ontario Girl Guides Association	5,000
Ontario Historical Society	1,000
Ontario Library Association	1,000
Ontario School Trustees' and Ratepayers' Association	4,000
Ontario Society of Artists	500
Royal Astronomical Society	500
Royal Canadian Institute	1,000
Temperance Education Association	1,000
Urban School Trustees' Association	250
Visites Inter-provinciales	3,000
Grants to County Projects for Leadership Training:	
Community Life Training Institute	3,000
Canadian Committee, International Student Service	6,000
Ontario College of Art	50,000
Royal Society	1,500
TOTAL	\$192,700

^aAdapted from *Public Accounts of the Province of Ontario*, Fiscal Year 1948-49.

of Labour expended \$105,190 on Apprenticeship Training Classes; and the Department of Lands and Forests expended \$1,671 in grants to municipalities in lieu of the payment of school taxes. The Provincial Treasurer's Department, as another example, has subsidized education through the guarantee by the province of debentures issued between the years 1919 and 1934 by a number of school boards, some of whom defaulted payment of their debt charges. In order to effect co-ordination of effort and to avoid duplication in the distribution of grants, we recommend

that, in the distribution of legislative grants on behalf of activities with which another department of government is associated, the Minister of

Education adopt a basis which will secure proper co-ordination in the distribution of grants by the Department of Education and by other departments of government.

FEDERAL AID TO EDUCATION

62. Under our constitution, education is assigned exclusively to provincial jurisdiction. But some federal functions, for example in agriculture, technical education, and youth training, have led to the granting of financial assistance by the Dominion Government to the various provinces. The Federal Government made provision in 1913 for the distribution of \$10,000,000 to encourage agricultural education and, in 1919, for the distribution of \$10,000,000 for technical education; in 1945 and 1948, substantial sums were granted under Dominion-Provincial training agreements for vocational education. Mention might perhaps be made also of revenue, amounting to \$71,230 annually, derived by Ontario from the Common School Fund, for which the Dominion acts as trustee. Federal Government repayments to Ontario in 1948-49 under the Dominion-Provincial training agreements amounted to \$277,272; for Dominion-Provincial bursaries, \$50,000; for vocational schools, \$589,000; and for special apprenticeship training classes, \$77,080.

63. Since our terms of reference expressly limit our investigations to education in Ontario, we cannot with propriety make recommendations with respect to federal aid to education. But we may point out that education has expanded so greatly in extent and concept since the time of Confederation that it may well become impossible for provincial and municipal authorities to continue to provide sufficient revenue for the adequate support of it. In this event, additional financial assistance must be obtained, and only the Federal Government has access to sources of revenue sufficient to bear the burden. This does not apply solely to education; other social services are in a similar position. In fact, the whole question of Dominion-Provincial financing is involved; an issue upon which we do not care to comment.

64. The trend, however, is clear, at least in so far as education is concerned. Financial responsibility for the education of their children was originally that of parents alone, save for donations and subscriptions on a charitable basis. As the need increased, the basis of support was broadened to include assessment on all property taxable locally and an ever increasing share of the revenues of the province. Local municipalities cannot, in our opinion, be asked to place a heavier burden on property in order to finance education; and the Provincial Government now appropriates approximately 22 per cent of Net Ordinary Revenue for expenditures of the Department of Education. Under our proposals, the contribution of the central authority to education will be substantially increased. There must come a point beyond which the province can not go without running the risk of seriously

impairing services in other departments of government. This has particular significance in view of the fact that the school population may, we estimate, increase by as much as 50 per cent within a generation, thus entailing a corresponding increase in capital and current expenditures.

65. Additional sources of revenue may need to be secured in the future if the programme of education which we deem essential is not to be curtailed. That the need for such additional revenue has been apparent is evidenced in the following quotation from the *Report of the Royal Commission on Dominion-Provincial Relations*:

It is our hope that provision can be made for the fiscal needs of all provinces, including within those needs provision for the education of the young. Our financial proposals aim at placing every province in a position to discharge its responsibilities for education (on a scale that is within the means of the people of Canada) if it chooses to do so. Once this position is established it seems to us best that education, like every other form of welfare service in a democratic community, should have to fight for its life, and that a generous provision for the education of the children of the nation should depend, not on any arbitrary constitutional provision, but on the persistent conviction of the mass of the people that they must be ready to deny themselves some of the good things of life in order to deal fairly by their children. Hence we do not think that it would be wise or appropriate for the Dominion to make grants to the provinces ear-marked for the support of general education.¹

Under no circumstances, however, should the jurisdiction of the province with respect to education be diminished.

¹Report of the Royal Commission on Dominion-Provincial Relations, Book II, *Recommendations*, p. 51, Ottawa: King's Printer.

CHAPTER XXIX

DIVERGENCE OF OPINION WITHIN THE COMMISSION

1. In Clokie and Robinson's book entitled "Royal Commissions of Inquiry" appears the following statement with respect to the usual procedure followed by Royal Commissions:

If unanimity of opinion proves impossible, there may be a 'minority report' or even several minority reports. Also, individual Commissioners may agree 'with reservations' to a report; or they may express individual opinions, either of a 'concurring' or a 'dissenting' nature, which are put into paragraphs appended to the report or which may be signed as separate memoranda. In addition to these possibilities, the majority may 'reply' to the minority, their rebuttal being printed as part of the majority report . . .¹

2. Not unnaturally, and particularly since the Commission comprised 21 persons representative of practically all major groups within our province, differences of opinion arose from time to time during our deliberations. For the most part, such differences were resolved through free discussion and a remarkable degree of unanimity was achieved. There was but one major exception. At the conclusion of our deliberations, it was found that four of our colleagues, namely, Messrs. Henderson, Kelly, Pigott, and Saint-Jacques, differed so radically from the majority of the members of the Commission that they did not feel free to sign the majority report, even "with reservations". Hence, they submitted what is truly a minority report, plus an additional memorandum appended thereto and signed by Mr. Saint-Jacques only. Otherwise, all Commissioners save one (Mr. W. H. Clarke) subscribed to the majority report, with exception being taken to only three points by two signatories of the majority report (Drs. Neelands and Whitelock), and by two others (Dr. Smith and Mr. Chapman) on two only of the same three points. Dr. Whitelock and Dr. Neelands have prepared and submitted what Clokie refers to as "separate memoranda", but which they have called a "minority report", in which they express their dissent from the majority report on the said three points and advance other proposals in respect

¹H. M. Clokie and J. W. Robinson, *Royal Commissions of Inquiry*, Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1937, p. 188.

thereto. Dr. Smith and Mr. Chapman have concurred with, and have shared in expressing, two of the three points contained in this separate memorandum.

3. The ideas contained in the minority report and in these memoranda are not new to the Commission as a whole. They, together with many other suggestions, were thoroughly explored and found to be unacceptable to the majority. The fact that four of our colleagues who have signed the majority report have submitted in their separate memorandum different recommendations on two points with respect to Roman Catholic separate schools is evidence of their sincere endeavour, in common with the other Commissioners, to find a solution to a serious problem. It must be observed, however, that their proposals with respect to the administration of Roman Catholic separate schools are conditioned on separate school supporters confining the sphere of their activities to the elementary school field as defined in the reorganization of the educational system recommended in the majority report.

4. The fact that the proposals outlined in this separate memorandum are not acceptable to Messrs. Henderson, Kelly, Pigott, and Saint-Jacques is strikingly significant. It demonstrates the difficulties which necessarily flow to an inevitable conclusion where there is any departure from the limitations on separate schools originally agreed on and incorporated in the legislation of 1863 and 1867. Moreover, the proposals for the administration of such schools advanced in the memorandum of Messrs. Neelands, Whitelock, Smith, and Chapman would, we fear, far from ending what has long and oftentimes been unhappy and acrimonious differences of opinion in communities with respect to Roman Catholic separate schools, only give opportunity to exacerbate and prolong that type of discord which invariably causes disruption in any community. Although there appear elsewhere in our Report recommendations to permit the periodic exercise of an option in regard to procedure in some other problems of general school administration, nevertheless it is considered that the possibility of a change every five years in the administrative authority for Roman Catholic separate schools, as proposed in this memorandum, contains the ingredients of continued discord and dissatisfaction. Furthermore, there seems to be a serious impediment to the practicability of the proposed administrative arrangement; namely, there would appear to be no authority which, by entering into an agreement such as proposed in this memorandum, can deprive a group of any five heads of families who are Roman Catholics from exercising their statutory right to establish a separate school, as secured to them by the *British North America Act*.

5. The other point raised by Drs. Neelands and Whitelock and the reasons for its unacceptability to the majority of the Commission have been dealt with adequately in other sections of our Report and demand no further discussion at this juncture.

6. In presenting the foregoing brief discussion of the said memoranda, it should be appreciated that we do so with the fullest respect and courtesy to those members of the Commission who have signed such memoranda of exception to the majority report, in which they otherwise concur, and that these members are in no way parties to the foregoing comments in regard to their memoranda.

7. Although differing from the advocates of Roman Catholic separate schools, we have tried scrupulously throughout our long deliberations and in our Report to avoid anything which might be construed as an attack upon such schools. We have discussed their views at great length and have considered them carefully. We accept and respect whatever constitutional rights Roman Catholics may enjoy in regard to the establishment of denominational schools within the constitutional limits. If we have been unable to agree with the proponents of these schools or with the extension of the scope of such schools, we have done so in a friendly spirit and without recrimination. Notwithstanding anything in the minority report referring to the report of the majority of the Commission or to the work of the Commission, the following reply thereto, while necessarily frank, is governed by the same friendly spirit which has dominated all our deliberations.

8. The minority report submitted by our fellow-Commissioners, Messrs. Henderson, Kelly, Pigott, and Saint-Jacques, at first appeared to demand no reply or comment, but further consideration dictated a contrary course for two reasons:

- (1) Some statements contained in the minority report afford an opportunity by way of reply to affirm explicitly a fundamental principle governing the schools of this province which, perhaps, is unknown or ignored all too frequently by those who are entrusted by the people with the conduct of education in our province.
- (2) Some statements of a general nature in the minority report, if unanswered, might imply an assent thereto and an acceptance of them by the signatories of the majority report—a situation which is far from being the case.

9. The first of such foregoing statements in the minority report is as follows:¹

Equally fallacious, in our opinion, is the assumption running through those parts of the Majority Report dealing with separate schools that the enjoyment of rights by Roman Catholics with respect to separate schools depends on the establishment and operation of a separate school having no harmful effect on any public school. In other words, the position has apparently been taken that the interests of the public schools are, in all cases, paramount, and that the erection and continued operation of a separate school can be tolerated only if there can be no possible adverse reaction upon the public school . . .

If this is a stricture upon the majority report or the signatories thereto, it must be accepted gladly and without complaint. Undoubtedly, the interest

¹See paragraph 17, page 787.

of public schools is, and must continue to be, of prime and paramount importance in this province. To realize that this is, and must be, so, it is only necessary to refer to the respective statutory provisions. The principle involved is one which, although implied, had not been set out specifically earlier in our Report; it requires a clear and unequivocal statement.

10. Section 5 of *The Public Schools Act* reads as follows:

5. (1) All schools established under this Act shall be free public schools, and every person between the ages of five and twenty-one years, except persons whose parents or guardians are separate school supporters, and except persons who, by reason of mental or physical defect, are unable to profit by instruction in the public schools, shall have the right to attend some school in the urban municipality or rural school section in which he resides.¹

11. Sections 18 and 45 (*d*) of *The Separate Schools Act* read as follows:

18. Not less than five heads of families, being householders or freeholders resident within any public school section of a township, or within a city, town or village, and being Roman Catholics, may convene a public meeting of persons desiring to establish a separate school therein for the election of trustees.

45. It shall be the duty of every board and it shall have power to,—

.

(*d*) provide adequate accommodation and legally qualified teachers, according to the provisions of this Act and the regulations, for all children between the ages of five and twenty-one years of the supporters of the schools under the control of the board according to the annual enumeration of the assessors for the next preceding year;²

12. Thus, it will be seen that the simple truth is that the province sets up a system of education, and that the obligation to provide for all children, regardless of race, language, or creed, rests squarely on the public schools. They are free and open to all. No such responsibility rests by law on Roman Catholic separate schools; they are a type of voluntary denominational elementary school which receives not all Roman Catholic children, but only the children of those Roman Catholic ratepayers who have elected or chosen to separate from the public schools and to support separate schools. *The Separate Schools Act* provides only an option, which in many sections of this province has not been exercised at any time, and which, of course, imposes no general obligation on such schools or the trustees thereof to provide educational facilities for all children. Therefore, it would appear nothing more than elementary justice that the system which must provide for “all the children of all the people” should be entitled to have the first and paramount claim on public support.

13. The minority report states at the beginning of paragraph 6:³

In the light of the relevancy of the question of cost, we cannot feel otherwise than that the report of the majority of the Commission has failed to present essential data which would have made possible a reasonably accurate estimate of the cost entailed . . .

¹R.S.O., 1937, Ch. 357.

²R.S.O., 1937, Ch. 362.

³See page 780.

At the end of the same paragraph, the following appears:

Neglect to explore and report upon these important phases constitutes a serious defect in the Majority Report. We feel that before any decision can be made in regard to implementing the Majority Report further studies and investigations will have to be made to obtain the necessary information as to cost.

The query as to cost was one raised not only by those who now subscribe to the minority report, but also by other Commissioners from time to time. Two of the signatories of the minority report were members of a five-man committee of the Commission to whom was delegated the detailed study of finance. It is therefore surprising to find the foregoing statement in the minority report. Actually, no one can predict costs for the proposed new organization; in fact it is impossible to predict with any degree of accuracy the future costs of the existing system of schools. But one fact became abundantly clear; namely, that a public school system without separate schools would, and must be, less costly, particularly to the Provincial Treasury, than a dual or separated system with its many duplications of buildings, administration, services, and the like. Furthermore, it would appear to be incontestable that the financial difficulties experienced at present by Roman Catholic separate schools would be largely dissipated and a greater efficiency maintained through an adherence by them to those grades of the elementary school proposed in the majority report.

14. All too frequently, particularly in some public references to the work of this Commission, the erroneous idea seems to have been held and sedulously advanced that the chief, if not the sole, purpose of this Commission was to seek ways and means to increase financial aid to Roman Catholic separate schools. Nothing could be further from the truth, nor can such a purpose be found within the four corners of our terms of reference.

15. It would appear that, in the over-all picture, the goal of greater educational efficiency would be achieved at a lesser cost under the sum total of the proposals contained in the majority report than otherwise. In any event, all the facilities of the Commission were at all times available to those signing the minority report, but these Commissioners did not bring to the Commission table, nor have they brought forward in their minority report, any estimate of the cost of the changes which are proposed in either of the reports or in any memoranda submitted. Expressions of doubt or of alarm as to cost, as contained in the minority report, add nothing to, and subtract nothing from, the worth of the majority recommendations.

16. Far from the majority report having striven for "uniformity for uniformity's sake", as expressed in the minority report, a careful reading and faithful consideration of the majority proposals cannot fail to impress upon the reader how vigorously the majority report stresses the great importance of, and possibility for, that adaptability, initiation, and local responsibility and development which will be possible of achievement

through the decentralized organization which the majority propose. We have stressed the value and importance of decentralization in educational administration and the need to maintain and strengthen local interest in education. We have striven not for "uniformity", but for provisions which will make possible adaptations to meet local conditions and needs.

17. The minority report, in dealing with the question of "the final settlement" of 1863 as confirmed by the *British North America Act* of 1867, proceeds with an argument which, because of its foundation, fails to appreciate the position of the majority and so becomes most misleading. No one for a moment would suggest that any legislation is final—not even the *British North America Act*, which could well be amended constitutionally to abolish all the privileges now secured by it for denominational schools. But what the majority do say, as is amply supported by the record, is that there was in 1863 a final agreement as to the scope of separate schools. The legislation, while not in itself final, was the statutory embodiment of an agreement which was final, as was recognized in that day by legislators of various political parties and various religious affiliations. If the agreement so reached is on the basis and understanding that the legislation is to be enacted as a result of the agreement that the concessions or privileges granted are a final settlement, then is not only the agreement, but also the legislation, final until such time as a new agreement is concluded? If the settlement was not "final", as the majority believe it to be, and if, as the minority report states, "Finality in legislation there never can be", then there can be no sanctity in the provisions of Section 93 of the *British North America Act*, which the majority have accepted on the basis of "finality". If the premise of the minority that no legislation can be final and that no one in the past had power or authority to bind future generations for "eternity" is accepted as being valid, then the logical and inescapable question arises and must be faced, namely, have separate schools a permanent place in our school system? If they have not, then might not their abolition be desirable in the interests of publicly supported education in the province.

18. The criticism found in the minority report with respect to the Commission's recommendation that a Central Advisory Council be established is expressed as based upon a fear that "responsible government" might thereby be placed in jeopardy. The need for a similar Advisory Committee in another department of public service was well expressed in the report of the Ontario Royal Commission on Forestry, 1947. The following extracts from it may be aptly quoted here:

It is submitted that any legislation or any forest policy, no matter how sound and workable, can be nullified by Government or Ministerial action. Many submissions presented at the public hearings recommended the formation of a Commission which would be above politics and which would provide continuity and impartiality to forest policy.

I am very firmly convinced that public interest will best be served by the

departmental system under a Minister responsible to the people. I am just as firmly convinced that measures should be taken to prevent a Minister from reversing existing forest policy or promulgating new policies and only informing the general public several years later.

To indicate the need for some type of check I point out that such policy-reversing changes have occurred in the past without the general public being aware of them for several years. It is difficult to take suitable remedial action in such matters when they appear in a departmental annual report sometimes three years after the event.

In order to provide reasonable continuity of forest policy when changes of government, or even changes of Ministers, occur and to guard against possible unwise or precipitate Departmental action, I recommend that an Advisory Committee to the Minister of Lands and Forests be appointed . . .

. . . the Minister may lay any problems, on which he wishes advice, before the Committee. Conversely, members might ask for explanations of any Departmental action taken or contemplated. The Minister need not necessarily accept the advice of the Committee, but could receive much benefit from their discussion of and reaction to any major projects he might have under contemplation.¹

That the fear expressed in this minority report has not been considered a serious threat to the principles of responsible government is demonstrated by the recent announcement by the Government of the appointment of an Advisory Committee to the Minister of Lands and Forests, as recommended by the Royal Commission on Forestry.

19. Because we do not comment upon the historical appendix to this minority report, it must not be assumed that we accept it as a complete and objective historical survey.

20. Other criticisms in the minority report of the recommendations of the majority report have all been advanced on more than one occasion during the discussions of the Commission as a whole. However, the views expressed in such criticisms were found by the majority to contain nothing of substance which would be tenable or practicable in our public school system with its present optional denominational elementary schools as permitted by the earlier agreement. Constructive solutions to overcome the weaknesses existing in our educational system and thereby to bring about its improvement can rarely, if ever, be found in the exercise of polemics, however brilliant. We have endeavoured, at all times, to be dialectic.

21. Finally, we come to the separate memorandum of Mr. W. H. Clarke. Although it had been understood that this Commissioner was joining in the majority report, subject to some possible exceptions, on November 23, 1950, he advised that he would not be a signatory to the majority report but would be submitting a separate statement. Since his statement was not filed with the Commission until December 2, 1950, we have had little time—nor is it necessary—to reply in detail to it, but reference must be made to some of his misconceptions.

¹*Report of the Ontario Royal Commission on Forestry*, Toronto: King's Printer, 1947, pp. 183-84.

22. The Commissioner's statement is divided into sections numbered I to XI inclusive. The ideas contained in it which are contrary to those in the majority report are not new; they are a compound of representations made to the Commission by various outside persons and bodies and of thoughts and queries from time to time expressed by individual Commissioners, including Mr. Clarke. These ideas were rejected by the majority in their search for acceptable and workable policies.

23. Concerning section III on "Subjects of Study in Secondary Schools", the course in "Occupations" is a subject included not for four but only for two years.

24. The Commission was fully cognizant of, and give full consideration to, the views expressed in section IV on "Decentralization of the Control of Education". These views were weighed in the balance and found wanting.

25. The fears expressed in section V on "A Central Advisory Council" have already been discussed in paragraph 18 above.

26. With respect to section VI on "Separate Schools", and again with respect to section VII on "Schools in which French is used as a Language of Instruction and Communication", it may be all to the good that this Commissioner has expressed vigorous views. In so far as section VI is concerned, his views are at the opposite extreme to those expressed in the minority report of Messrs. Henderson, Kelly, Pigott, and Saint-Jacques. Our colleague's ideas, in various forms and at divers times, were pressed upon, and considered by, the Commission. The opposing extremes of policy with reference to these problems contained in these dissenting reports can only emphasize the difficulties inherent in these matters, demonstrate the breadth of the treatment given to them by the majority of the Commission, and show our realistic attitude in dealing firmly with these two questions which are capable of arousing such conflicting advocacy.

27. Our earlier chapter on teacher training is, we believe, clear and unequivocal in its assessment and rejection of the ideas in respect thereof set out in section VIII. The ideas in the last paragraph of this section have been considered by us, and we stated in our Report that the agreement between the Minister of Education and the Governors of the University of Toronto should "make explicit the respective authority and responsibility of the contracting parties".

28. Other aspects touched upon by this statement do not require special reference—save for the place and importance of English throughout the school programme. We yield ground to no one in our insistence on the importance to be placed upon the subject of English and its teaching. Our schools should aim to produce an educated people capable of understanding, appreciating, and using its inheritance of English speech. The method and detail to be followed in achieving this aim can be determined only by a much more exhaustive and expert inquiry than we were in a position to make. May we quote from the report of one Advisory Council:

But, without being dogmatic, we suspect that the solution is not likely to be found in merely emptying the curriculum and handing over a large part of the school week swept and garnished to the English teacher; for, unless we let him keep and use the varied content of the displaced subjects, there is danger that the seven devils of mere verbalism will enter in and the last state of the pupils be worse than the first. English teaching to the young needs matter as well as form: the powers of understanding and expression are not exercised in a vacuum but only on material congenial to the age and experience of the learner. Indeed, this is half the case for demanding the co-operation of all teachers. It is not merely that English may be taught during more periods, but that it may be taught in more contexts and commended to the young by its obvious right of entry everywhere. Ordinary pupils will never see English aright, until they see that it 'comes into' Chemistry and History, into Geography, Geometry and Mechanics—even into the translation of Ovid or Daudet.¹

We would stress that there is a collective responsibility—not only on teachers of English, but on all teachers of other subjects with respect to English.

¹A Report of the Advisory Council on Education in Scotland, *Secondary Education*, Edinburgh: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1947, p. 63.

CHAPTER XXX

CONCLUSION

1. At the end of a long and comprehensive survey, it may be well to summarize briefly the chief principles governing our conclusions and the way in which we have attempted to apply them.

2. In the first place, our approach has been historical. Our system of education is only to be understood in the light of its growth and of the influences which have operated on it. We have attempted no doctrinaire solutions divorced from a consideration of growth and of present realities, and we have approached the study of our great educational system with a healthy respect for the creative spirit of the past.

3. In the second place, we have based our conclusions on a comparative study: on the one hand, of other Canadian systems as well as American and European; on the other hand, on the current opinions of educationists. In regard to the former, we have been aware of the great problems confronting all democracies, and we have sought to preserve in our schools the spirit of the democratic way of life. Hence, we have paid great attention to educational changes in other democratic countries, and we have been ready, where necessary, to sacrifice some of the more obvious virtues of efficiency for the sake of those less obvious but still more valuable virtues which are necessary for freedom and good citizenship.

4. In regard to the latter, we have found that the views of educationists and the needs of democratic living are, not unnaturally, largely identical. All our deliberations and all our conclusions have been based on the premise that the welfare of the child is the prime purpose of any educational system. In all our discussions and in the formulation of our recommendations no other consideration has been allowed to obscure this purpose. The needs of the child are the bed-rock on which we have tried to build up the whole system of education; and, in regard to these needs, we have turned to the educationist and psychologist. It is certain that the views of these experts will change in the future, as they have changed in the past; and we have not regarded them as necessarily final or containing absolute truth. Nevertheless, we believe that it would be folly to disregard almost universally accepted opinions which have an obvious bearing on the educational system and the welfare of the child.

5. Finally, our purpose has been to fashion a system of education which, having regard to all the circumstances, would not only be practicable and proportionate to our resources, but would also be acceptable to the vast majority of the people of our province. Perhaps no scheme that could be devised would meet the entire approval of all the members of such a vigorous and varied community as that of Ontario; but one of our constant endeavours has been to approach as near to this end as was compatible with our basic purposes and ideals. What we have attempted to do is to unite and not to divide citizens of Ontario of all varieties of opinion in the achievement of a system in which all may recognize an effort to maintain and strengthen our common way of life.

6. Our basic purpose—the welfare of the child—has led us to endorse, and to seek to provide for, a system of universal education up to age 16. We believe that the best education which the community can provide is the rightful heritage of every child; and this belief has led us to make the educational programme for all children up to 16 years as inclusive as possible and to make every effort, through the use of special agencies and other means, to extend its benefits to every child in even the remotest area in Ontario.

7. The same purpose has led us to suggest drastic changes in the organization of the educational system and in the curriculum of the schools. The latter may be briefly dismissed, as similar changes already have been advocated by the Minister of Education. Our suggested curriculum and organization of classes in elementary schools are the direct consequence of the views of educationists on the needs and development of children and of our own conclusions as to the importance of participation by pupils in group activities. It is part of a consistent attempt to make education a process of learning to live, which we have carried through all grades, as for example in our suggested grouping of children in divisions and in our emphasis on co-curricular activities. It is this preoccupation with the individual child which lies beneath the extensive discussion which we have given to atypical children and to provision for their needs.

8. The same basic purpose has directed the efforts we have made to diversify education at later stages of the system and to give to every child the maximum freedom of choice compatible with a system of publicly supported education for all. It is for this purpose, even more than to attain efficiency in instruction, that we have favoured the development of central schools serving large areas, to which students may be transported and where they may have the best expert assistance and the maximum liberty in the choice of the subjects they wish to pursue. This freedom of choice broadens out into an important scheme for greatly enlarged vocational training, and into a new emphasis on non-academic subjects the basic reason for which is not technical efficiency and the needs of industry but the deeper need to give full opportunity for each child to develop his personality and broaden his experience along the

line of his natural abilities. In all this, we have attempted to be consistent and to pursue with single-minded purpose the welfare of the individual child.

9. Similarly, in the proposed reorganization of the school system our aim has been to mould the system to suit the child rather than the child to suit the system. The break we have suggested between elementary and secondary education is designed to meet the transition from childhood to adolescence. Our proposed compression of the existing programme of education in elementary and secondary schools is based on our assessment of the ability of the age group 6 to 16 and on the need for more variety and opportunity for selection, together with increasing specialization, in the programme at a later stage. A whole new and ambitious feature of the proposed educational system is the provision for junior colleges with university-preparatory and vocational courses as a distinct stage in the educational process. This represents merely a continued application of the same ideals of education which guided us in our approach to the problems of education in the other stages. The aim is to give each youth the type of education for which he is most suited, to remove unreal distinctions between different aspects of educational activity and the harmful stigma which tradition has imposed on non-academic subjects, and to free the general system of education for all from a possible distortion imposed by the proper requirements for entrance to universities. The institutions we propose are the consequence of a frank recognition of the fact that most of the students in our schools are not destined for training in universities.

10. Nothing in our findings has been motivated by any disparagement of the value of academic subjects or of the supreme contribution which the study of these subjects in our schools has made, and will make, to our culture and to those individuals who have chosen, and to those who in future will choose, to make them the centre of their studies. Indeed, we have been at great pains to urge the importance of a thorough grounding in some of these subjects for all children during the period of compulsory school attendance. Nevertheless, we believe that the universities themselves are the first to recognize the evils that attend the designing of all school education to meet their special requirements; in any event, the junior colleges will not fail to equip many students for specialized courses in the universities. But, above all, the new programmes of specialized, non-academic courses are designed to keep the schools in close touch with the needs of contemporary society and sensitive to the interests and needs of the young men and women who will leave school to take their place in the outside world. With this end in view, we have laid emphasis on student counselling and on a flexibility of programme to allow for ample experimentation and change on the part of the students themselves.

11. The needs of the community, complementary and not antago-

nistic to those of the child, have likewise been recognized at every stage of our proposed reorganization. We have believed it our duty not only to recognize the need to safeguard the ideals of democracy, but also to accept the consequences of this recognition. In a democracy the individual must never be offered in complete sacrifice to the needs of the political order. It is he, not the state, who is of first consequence; but, as we have pointed out, his liberty must be reconciled with the need for loyalties and obligations to the community. We have attempted to work out this compromise in our suggestions with respect to the teaching of subjects such as religious education and social studies and in our planning of co-curricular activities; but we have also gone further and have attempted to express our democratic ideals in the field of educational administration and the larger area of educational government and finance.

12. With regard to the subjects to be taught, we have urged mastery by all children of those subjects, more particularly English and social studies, which will enable them to enter into their cultural heritage and equip them to exercise their full rights of citizenship. We have not hesitated to urge that the supreme aim of all school activity is to produce action in our children based on commonly accepted Christian and democratic ideals. We have regarded the school as operating, to this end, in an indissoluble partnership with the home and the church and, indeed, with all members of the community. Education, we have assumed, is not something which ends with formal schooling, and many of our suggestions have been intended to ensure that it shall become, more than it is at present, a continuing process for all, extending far beyond the narrow limits of the years formally dedicated to the school.

13. In the larger area of educational organization, the needs of the child and those of the community are complementary. The child is best served, we believe, by a system which finds its inspiration and its vitality in the practices of the democratic state. There is no need to recapitulate all our detailed suggestions regarding these important matters. Broadly speaking, we have striven to combine the efficiency that derives from centralization with the vitality that comes from such a measure of decentralization as will leave to the community a direct and important share in the control over educational affairs. Thus, we have recommended that the *externa* be less widely, and the *interna* more widely, decentralized. With this end in view, we have recommended the creation of large units of administration; and we would again emphasize that the purpose is to provide areas sufficiently large to permit local education authorities to exercise their responsibilities efficiently and economically and maintain independence from central control. It is to utilize the strength and vitality that come from local control over education that we have, wherever possible, adopted the system of election for all local education authorities; and it is for this same purpose that we have made our schools

financially dependent, in the first instance, on local support. Here, as in other directions, the role of the central authority is supervision and the equalization of standards and burdens. The relationship we have aimed at is one of co-operation in a common endeavour, in which the ultimate repository of all authority is recognized by all parties to be the community as a whole. We have put our faith in the response of the local communities, even in the wider areas, to the responsibilities placed upon them; and we have little fear that, with suitable safeguards such as we have attempted to work out, they will not measure up to the tasks they will be called on to perform. The administration, like the practice, of education is part of that pattern of democratic living which we wish to see preserved.

14. All these changes, we recognize, will depend for their success or failure largely on the devotion and ideals of teachers, inspectors, and administrators. We have no illusions as to the need for obtaining for, and retaining in, these positions men and women of great professional skill and high personal integrity; and we are in entire sympathy with any project designed to this end. In making our suggestions, however, we have been compelled to strike a balance between the ideal and the practicable. We hope, and indeed expect, that in due course it will be possible to improve even the high standards of training and remuneration which we propose; but we feel that we have moved forward in this direction as far as present circumstances will permit. We have recommended an integrated system of training for teachers, with extended facilities for training and practice teaching, and with improved standards; and have suggested that there should be a scale of remuneration which would offer rewards both for service and for proficiency. Above all, we have aimed throughout at providing scope for zeal and ability. We feel that our proposals meet the urgent needs of the present and also provide a basis for the training and maintenance of a distinguished personnel in future years.

15. In our deliberations we have taken into consideration the particular problems in our province arising out of the existence of separate schools within our educational system. We have approached this phase of our investigation, we believe, in the same spirit as that outlined earlier in this chapter. In particular, we have been guided by the facts of historical development and by the dictates of law and equity derived mainly from the great settlement of 1867. Above all, we have, in the presence of differing opinions and purposes, been guided by an adherence to the law and the claims of constitutional right. We have attempted to reconcile the claims and counter-claims made in relation to separate schools by reference to the explicit agreement, binding on all parties, which led to, and was embodied in, the *British North America Act*. No other course seemed just, wise, or practicable; nowhere else could we discover a clear-cut and authoritative basis on which to reconcile con-

flicting interests and on which to achieve general concurrence and co-operation.

16. Our stand on this basis has resulted in a general recognition of the claims of separate elementary schools in this province, with all their attendant rights and administrative machinery. On the other hand, it has made it impossible to give effect to the extension of separate school rights and privileges beyond the situation, in principle, as it existed in 1867.

17. It may be that our solution will fail to give complete satisfaction to all members of the community; but it is our hope that our adherence to the only basis of settlement available to us will obtain acceptance by the vast majority. Our aim has been to preserve a single, coherent, system of education for the whole province and, at the same time, to give to all the maximum of liberty consistent with unity of purpose and direction. We deemed it essential not to impair the validity of the great structure of education which our predecessors created with much effort and constant deliberation and which has served the province so well. Our overriding purpose has been to continue, to expand, and, where possible, to improve this structure, not to vitiate any of the basic principles on which it has been built.

18. Unlike the establishment and operation of separate schools, the introduction of French as a subject of study and a language of instruction and communication in publicly supported schools in Ontario is a privilege, not a right. It grew out of a very natural, and indeed morally justifiable, desire on the part of French-speaking parents to have their children receive instruction in their mother tongue. The practice which this engendered of employing French, in addition to English, as a language of instruction and communication met with the general approval of the Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee; and, for the most part, we have accepted and followed the wise and equitable recommendations of their Report. Our purpose has been to ensure proper and adequate supervision of education in such schools, in order that the pupils therein may become truly proficient in both languages and their general education be maintained on a level comparable with that in other schools.

19. We cannot close our Report without one final reference to those individuals who are sustaining our educational system by their devoted and efficient labours. It has not been part of our duty to dwell at great length on their virtues; but we cannot refrain from a sense of pride in what they have already accomplished, sometimes with inadequate resources and imperfect material aids. We owe much not only to directors, inspectors, and teachers, but also to the voluntary labours of trustees, parents, and other members of the community. The debt which a community owes to its educators is not very often acknowledged; and we, who have been privileged to make a special estimate of that debt, would be remiss indeed if we did not make a particular reference to it. It is the sure knowledge of the great co-operative effort which lies behind past achievements which gives us

confidence to plan for advances of decisive importance in the years immediately ahead. It is because we have, as we believe, caught something of the dynamic spirit of the community and of its educators that we have been able to plan confidently for an expansive future, in which the broadening horizons of all the people will be reflected and enlarged in the expanding horizons of the child.

20. In signing our Report, we record our common approval of the general principles therein formulated and of the broad lines of advance which have there been proposed for the future. Naturally, in a document of such length and of such detail, it cannot be expected that each separate item could command an equal measure of assent, nor do our signatures signify this. They do, however, declare that after consideration of the volume of evidence we received from many different sources, and after long and full discussion, we have reached a common mind as to the general developments we deem to be desirable in our educational system.

21. ALL OF WHICH WE HUMBLY SUBMIT FOR YOUR HONOUR'S GRACIOUS CONSIDERATION

(*signed*)

J. A. HOPE
M. A. CAMPBELL
*A. V. CHAPMAN
C. R. CONQUERGOD
RUTH S. HOUCK
BLANCHE MARSHALL
NORMAN MCLEOD
**RALPH J. NEELANDS
ISABEL NEW
LOFTUS H. REID
CHARLES R. SANDERSON
HELEN M. SHEPPARD
***SIDNEY SMITH
W. A. TOWNSHEND
**W. L. WHITELOCK

December 15, 1950

*I sign, subject, as set forth in my memorandum on page 773, to the reservations contained in Section B and in Section C of the Minority Report by Dr. R. J. Neelands, Dr. W. L. Whitelock, Dr. Sidney Smith, and myself (see page 755).

**I sign, subject to reservations in regard to certain sections of the Majority Report, with respect to which I offer, and prefer to support, the alternative proposals set forth in the Neelands-Whitelock Minority Report (see page 755) to which I subscribe.

***I sign, subject, as set forth in my memorandum on page 775, to the reservations contained in Section B and in Section C of the Minority Report by Dr. R. J. Neelands, Dr. W. L. Whitelock, Mr. A. V. Chapman, and myself (see page 755).

For separate report signed by Mr. E. F. Henderson, Mr. Arthur Kelly, Mr. J. M. Pigott, and Mr. Henri Saint-Jacques, see page 779.

For separate memorandum signed by Mr. Henri Saint-Jacques, see page 895.

For separate memorandum signed by Mr. W. H. Clarke, see page 899.

MINORITY REPORT

BY

DR. R. J. NEELANDS AND DR. W. L. WHITELOCK

1. With most of the recommendations contained in the Majority Report we are in full agreement, and have signified our support by affixing our signatures thereto; but on a number of points we disagree with the findings and conclusions of our fellow-Commissioners. We do not feel that it would be fair either to ourselves or to other members of the Commission if we registered only dissent. Accordingly, we have set forth in subsequent sections the specific matters to which we take exception, our reasons therefor, and alternative proposals in connection therewith.

SECTION A

ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

2. Under date of December 2, 1949, the Commission of which we are members submitted to the Lieutenant-Governor an Interim Report, entitled "An Emergency Training Scheme for Teachers for the Public and Separate Schools of Ontario". With its recommendations relating to emergency measures to meet the existing and impending shortage in the supply of teachers for elementary schools, we are in full agreement. Data secured subsequent to the submission of the Interim Report have substantiated the forecast made in it that the situation with respect to teacher supply would be grave. We sincerely regret that such emergency measures are necessary, and we heartily support our fellow-Commissioners in the conviction that the academic and professional qualifications for teachers for our elementary schools should be steadily improved.¹

3. In the chapters of the Majority Report of the Commission relating to the professional preparation of teachers, it is recommended that, in the future, prospective teachers for elementary schools receive their training in junior colleges of education—a new name for the present normal schools—through a two-year combined programme of academic and professional education. In view of the existing and prospective shortage of teachers for elementary schools, we look upon this programme also as a temporary arrangement which may be necessary for the immediate future. From a long-range point of view, however, we cannot accept it as providing an adequate academic and professional preparation for teachers for elementary schools.

¹See Chapter XXII.

4. Nor are we convinced that the method recommended for the professional preparation, in the Ontario College of Education, of prospective teachers for secondary schools and junior colleges is designed to serve the best interests either of individual teachers or of the teaching profession as a whole. Implementation of the recommendations contained in the Majority Report will mean that the academic preparation of such teachers will continue to be completely separated from their professional preparation. This practice is at variance with that followed by most universities in our province in the preparation of candidates for other professions and should, in our opinion, be changed. Further, under the general plan of teacher training recommended, teachers of elementary schools will not be required to hold academic and professional qualifications of the same high standard as those of other teachers. We believe that the teacher-training programme recommended by the majority of our fellow-Commissioners will not develop the teaching profession in the manner, and to the extent, we deem necessary. Teachers are members of one profession. Invidious distinctions, for example between elementary and secondary school teachers, must be eschewed. Their work is of equal importance in our complete plan of education. Nor do we believe the mere granting of B. Ed. degrees to successful graduates of a one-year course at the Ontario College of Education, even though they do hold B.A. degrees, will in any way improve their status. Surely the esteem of an earned university degree should bear some relation to the effort expended to obtain it.

5. In our opinion, the organization for the professional preparation of teachers should be patterned upon that which has proved successful in the preparation of candidates for other professions. Our belief is that all teacher education should be a function of universities and should lead to degrees in education. Teachers would then receive an academic and professional education through an integrated programme and would associate and work with each other and with students preparing for other professions. Thus, prospective teachers for all types of schools would be required to hold a common and high standard for entrance into the profession and would be educated in an environment well designed to develop a professional spirit and to foster the growth of professional ethics.

6. We believe that, as soon as possible, every prospective teacher should be required to obtain a university degree before being granted a licence to teach in any publicly supported school. As a consequence, we are unable to support either the continuance of normal schools, or the establishment of junior colleges of education as recommended in the Majority Report. Although we agree that final authority for the professional preparation of teachers and for granting licences to teach should be vested in the Minister of Education, yet we believe he should delegate authority to train teachers to the several universities of the province. After consideration of various possible arrangements, such as the establishment of teachers colleges or the provision of professional training subsequent to the completion of a uni-

versity course leading to a Bachelor's degree, we have concluded that the purposes we have in mind can be best attained through the establishment of Faculties of Education.

7. We recommend

- (a) *that the Minister of Education enter into agreements with certain universities of the province for the establishment and operation of Faculties of Education therein, to offer courses in education leading to degrees in education;*
- (b) *that the Minister of Education retain the power of licensing teachers and issue such licences upon recommendation of a licensing board, appointed by him, based either upon the results of written and oral examinations conducted by it or, in lieu thereof, on the results of examinations conducted by Faculties of Education accredited by it for this purpose.*

8. We recognize that university entrance requirements and programmes are not within the terms of reference of this Commission; and it is not our intention to make recommendations which might infringe upon the authority of universities. We sincerely hope, however, that the Minister and university authorities, in consultation, will be able to determine ways and means of implementing the teacher-training programme which we propose should be established.

9. Our idea is that a four-year programme for prospective teachers would be established in each Faculty of Education, leading to a degree which we suggest be designated Bachelor of Education. Admission to the course would require successful completion of a two-year course in a junior college leading to the Junior College Graduation Diploma; and the first year of the four-year teacher-training programme might be taken either in a junior college—in a course leading to the Junior College Honour Graduation Diploma—or in a university. The content of the first year of the programme would be academic in nature and would not include professional subjects; thus a student would be permitted either to begin or to discontinue the teacher-training programme at the beginning of the second year. The content of each of the final three years of the course would consist of an integrated programme of academic and professional subject matter. An applicant for admission to the teacher-training programme who holds an honours degree in arts from a recognized university should receive special consideration with regard to the courses and length of time required for the programme. We suggest, further, that courses leading to post-graduate degrees in education be established and operated under the regulations relating to graduate studies, leading upon successful completion of a year of post-graduate work to the degree of Master of Education, and leading to the degree of Doctor of Education upon successful completion of at least one additional year of meritorious post-graduate work and the preparation and submission of a thesis showing scholarly treatment and literary excellence.

10. Although we do not propose to discuss in any detail the proposed programme for the training of teachers, we recommend

- (a) *that practice teaching be emphasized in the teacher-training programme in each of the final three years leading to the Bachelor of Education degree;*
- (c) *that the Provincial Government defray directly only the cost of special emoluments paid to practice teachers and the travelling expenses of members of university staff and student teachers incurred in the course of practice teaching;*
- (c) *that the Provincial Government provide a number of generous scholarships to be tenable by those enrolled in a course in a Faculty of Education leading to a degree in education;¹*
- (d) *that, subject to other requirements being met, the Minister of Education grant a licence to teach in elementary and secondary schools to an applicant who holds a Bachelor of Education degree, and a licence to teach in junior colleges to an applicant who holds a Master of Education degree.*

11. In essence, we are proposing a long-range plan for teacher training and would, therefore, support, but only as a temporary expedient, the teacher-training programme recommended in the Majority Report. In our opinion, however, the teacher-training programme which we have recommended (under the jurisdiction of the universities) should be initiated immediately and should gradually replace other methods of training teachers. We recommend

that the teacher-training programme proposed by us and that recommended in the Majority Report of the Commission be operated concurrently until such time as teacher supply and other circumstances warrant the discontinuance of programmes offered in junior colleges of education and the Ontario College of Education and the delegation by the Minister of Education of responsibility for all teacher training to the universities.

12. It seems to us that when the educational system is reorganized it will be difficult for prospective supervisory officials in all cases to secure teaching experience in elementary schools, which will comprise the first six grades only. Under our proposed programme, all teachers in training will have practice teaching experience in both elementary and secondary schools. Under these circumstances, requirements for appointment as a supervisory official, whether appointed by the Minister of Education or by a local education authority, should not include prescribed teaching experience in elementary schools.

¹Under the present system of teacher training in normal schools, the full cost is paid by the Provincial Government. When teacher training is provided by universities, a considerable saving in public funds should be effected, particularly since students will be required to pay tuition fees. Under these conditions, the provision of such scholarships by the Provincial Government will be desirable and feasible.

SECTION B

SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOLS

13. It is recommended in the Majority Report that, with the exception of salaries, the conditions of service of teachers in Roman Catholic separate schools who are members of a religious order or community be the same as those for other teachers in Roman Catholic separate schools and as those for teachers in public schools. We believe that there should be no differentiation in treatment, since the training and certification of all teachers in public and separate schools will be the same; their service in the education of our youth is equivalent. We believe a salary should be remuneration for service rendered. In our opinion, the provincial schedule of minimum salaries should apply to all teachers, whether or not they are members of a religious order or community; and for legislative grant purposes the basis for approval of the amounts paid by a local education authority as salaries should be the same for all.

14. We recommend

- (a) *that, as recommended in the Majority Report, all teachers, including those who are members of a religious order or community, be required to execute individual contracts of employment with their employing boards of school trustees;*
- (b) *that when a provincial schedule of minimum salaries is established, as recommended in the Majority Report, it be applicable to all teachers, including those who are members of a religious order or community;*
- (c) *that, for legislative grant purposes, salaries paid to teachers in Roman Catholic separate schools, including those who are members of a religious order or community, be included in approved cost of operating, in like manner as salaries paid to teachers in public schools.*

SECTION C

ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION IN PUBLICLY SUPPORTED SCHOOLS

15. We believe that in the administration of education an ideal toward which we should strive is larger units of administration (comparable in size to counties, districts, and large cities) within each of which education in all publicly supported schools—including separate schools—is administered by a board of education; in less densely populated areas, the board of education would administer only those matters which the elementary school boards of the unit agree should be delegated to it. The major difficulty in the attainment of this ideal is the division of our educational system at the elementary school level into public and separate schools. At the

post-elementary school level one system is now supported by all; at the elementary school level the supporters of separate schools have voluntarily relinquished their rights and dissociated themselves from the duties and responsibilities related to public schools. Moreover, separate school corporations may be formed or dissolved, and separate schools may be established or discontinued, without reference—other than notification of the action having been taken—even to the Minister of Education. Can we, then, integrate the administration of post-elementary education, which is a unity, with that of elementary education, which is divided?

16. In our opinion, the organization of administration recommended in the Majority Report answers this question in the negative. While integration of the administration of public elementary and post-elementary education will be encouraged, Roman Catholic separate school boards must, in all cases, operate independently of other local education authorities. Further, although provision is made in the Majority Report for larger units of administration for post-elementary and public elementary education, this provision is not applicable to Roman Catholic separate schools, which in this respect are to operate under conditions specified in Acts in force at the time of Confederation. With these decisions we disagree. In the first place, we are opposed to any recommendation which would lead to the division of our publicly supported educational system into parts dissociated from each other. In the second place, in view of the changes in conditions of living since Confederation, and considering the needs of children enrolled in Roman Catholic separate schools, the general welfare of the citizens of our province, and the need for unity within our ranks, we cannot accept the decision of the majority of the Commissioners in the matter of units of administration for separate school purposes. We take the position that, *where specified conditions are met*, provision for the organization of larger units of administration should be extended to Roman Catholic separate schools and arrangements should be made to permit unification of the administration of all publicly supported schools. But we are convinced the unification cannot be established in a mandatory way; it must result from voluntary action by the groups affected. In fact, for legal reasons alone this must be the procedure in the case of separate schools. It is on the basis of the possibility of such voluntary action on the part of public school and separate school supporters that we have premised our recommendations.

17. In addition to the principles already stated, our conclusions and recommendations have been designed to satisfy, among others, the following criteria: that school board members should be nominated and elected in the manner followed in municipal elections; that a qualified ratepayer should be entitled to vote for the election of members of, or be a candidate for election to, a school board which administers any elementary school he supports; that all qualified ratepayers should be entitled to vote for the election of members of, or be a candidate for election to, a post-elementary

school board or board of education; that no member of any post-elementary school board or board of education should, by reason solely of his support of either a public elementary or separate elementary school, be excluded from participation in any discussion or decision of the board; that to facilitate use of existing municipal organizations (issuing debentures, collecting taxes, voting, etc.), the boundaries of larger units of administration for education should be coterminous with those of municipal units (cities, townships, counties, and districts); that as much as possible of the authority and responsibility for the *interna* and *externa* of education should be delegated by the Minister of Education to local education authorities; and that local interest in education should be encouraged.

Administration of Post-elementary and Public Elementary Schools

18. Concerning the administration of education in post-elementary and public elementary schools, in the main we agree with, and subscribe to, the recommendations contained in the Majority Report. On those points where we differ, our proposals are set forth below in the form of recommendations. In a few cases, in order to make the nature of our proposed organization clear, we have included, subject to relatively minor change, items contained in the Majority Report.

19. With regard to units of administration for public elementary and post-elementary education, we recommend

- (a) *that cities and townships (including towns and villages located therein) constitute the basic units for public elementary education;*
- (b) *that in territory not surveyed into townships the Minister of Education establish, for purposes of public elementary education, units comparable in size to townships in organized territory;*
- (c) *that cities and townships having a population of at least 60,000, counties, and territorial districts constitute the basic units for post-elementary education;*
- (d) *that units of administration for public elementary education be designated public school areas, and those for post-elementary education be designated regions.*

20. As a basic plan for the administration of public elementary schools, under which the organization in a public school area would normally be established initially, we recommend

- (a) *that in a public school area where the population is less than 60,000, public elementary schools be administered by a public school board composed of 5 members;*
- (b) *that in a "city" public school area, and in other public school areas where the population is at least 60,000, public elementary schools be administered by a public school board composed of 9 members;*
- (c) *that members of a public school board be elected at large by the qualified public school supporters of the public school area;*

- (d) *that members of a public school board serve three-year terms, arranged so as to overlap;*
- (e) *that a public school board be empowered to appoint an advisory committee of 3 persons for each school or group of schools under its jurisdiction;*
- (f) *that the Minister of Education specify a minimum programme for the elementary schools of the province;*
- (g) *that each public school board be empowered to provide services and facilities in excess of those specified in the provincial minimum programme;*
- (h) *that general legislative grants for the support of elementary schools be distributed on the basis of a percentage of the approved cost of operating, as defined in the Majority Report, of the specified minimum programme only, with the cost of additional services or facilities in public elementary schools being defrayed by the local public school boards;*
- (i) *that debentures for public elementary school purposes be issued by the city or township council concerned, on behalf of the public school board;*
- (j) *that in public school areas in unorganized townships and in territory not surveyed into townships each public school board be empowered to issue debentures for public elementary school purposes.*

21. In the matter of a basic plan for the administration of post-elementary education, under which the administration would be organized initially in most regions, we recommend

- (a) *that post-elementary education be administered by a regional board elected by qualified ratepayers of the region, whether public or separate school supporters, for the administration, in the first instance, of post-elementary education only;*
- (b) *that members of the regional board be elected at large or by wards in a city, and at large or by public school areas in a county or district, as may be determined by local option;*
- (c) *that where the election is at large the regional board be composed of 12 members, and where the election is by wards or by public school areas of 2 members from each ward or public school area;*
- (d) *that members of a regional board elected at large serve three-year, and that members of a regional board elected by wards or by public school areas serve two-year, terms, arranged so as to overlap;*
- (e) *that a regional board be empowered to appoint an advisory committee of 3 persons for each secondary school or group of secondary schools under its jurisdiction;*
- (f) *that debentures for secondary school and junior college purposes be issued by the city or township or county council concerned, on behalf of the regional board;*

- (g) *that, in a region with boundaries conterminous with those of a territorial district, the regional board be empowered to issue its own debentures for secondary school and junior college purposes.*

22. In order to permit the organization of a unified system of administration for public elementary and post-elementary education, we recommend

- (a) *that, where the region is a city or township with a population of at least 60,000, upon application of a specified number of qualified public elementary school supporters of the region, through a special plebiscite held for the purpose, the public elementary school supporters may elect to dissolve the public school board and to have the public elementary and post-elementary schools administered by the regional board, thereupon constituted as a regional board of education;*
- (b) *that, where the region is a county or territorial district, upon application of a specified number of qualified public elementary school supporters of each of one or more public school areas of the region, through a special plebiscite held for the purpose, the public elementary school supporters of the public school area or areas may elect to have the regional board constituted as a regional board of education to administer post-elementary education in the region and to act as an intermediate administrative body on behalf of the public school board or boards for those matters pertaining to elementary education in such public school area or areas delegated to it by the public school board or boards thereof;*
- (c) *that, where a regional board of education is established in any region as a result of such plebiscite, members of the regional board of education, whether or not they are separate elementary school supporters, have the right to participate in discussion of, and to vote upon, any motion before the regional board of education.*

Our reason for recommending a special type of administration of elementary education by a regional board of education in the case of county and territorial district regions, which will be predominantly rural, is our belief in the continued need for local interest and control consistent with economical administration. If in a county or territorial district the public school boards were abolished and all schools of the region were administered by the regional board of education, far removed from most of the elementary schools and their supporters, we believe local interest in education would decline and education suffer.

23. If the vote on a plebiscite to establish a regional board of education records a majority in favour in one or more public school areas, the new administrative arrangement should be instituted at the next election of trustees. After at least five years of operation, and not more frequently than once in each five-year period thereafter, another plebiscite may be held under the same conditions, and, if a two-thirds majority of the public

school supporters voting in a public school area is recorded in favour of withdrawing from the regional board of education, the public elementary school supporters thereof may revert to administration under an autonomous public school board. If the vote cast on the first-mentioned plebiscite records less than a majority in favour of the establishment of a regional board of education, other plebiscites may be held from time to time after a period of at least five years has elapsed in each case.

24. If a plebiscite to establish or dissolve a regional board of education were held at the time of the regular elections for boards of school trustees, at least a year would elapse before an administrative change could be effected. Accordingly we recommend

that the special plebiscite to establish, or withdraw from, a regional board of education be held at least three months prior to the date of the regular election of school trustees.

25. In making our recommendations we have endeavoured to encourage the unification of administration of public elementary and post-elementary education. From data available, we believe that in at least 80 per cent of the proposed regions the arrangements we have proposed can be effected immediately. It is our hope that even in the remaining regions some *modus operandi* for the unified administration of elementary and post-elementary education may develop—as we feel it may where the proposals relating to separate schools we now discuss are put into operation.

Administration of Roman Catholic Separate Schools

26. We wish to make it clear at the outset that our recommendations on the administration of Roman Catholic separate schools are premised upon the implementation of the following proposals to which, as set forth or inferred in the Majority Report, we have subscribed:

- (1) The educational system of the province should be reorganized into three stages on a 6-4-3 basis—elementary schools, secondary schools, and junior colleges. In the reorganized system, neither Roman Catholic elementary separate school boards nor public elementary school boards should have jurisdiction over education at the secondary school or junior college level.
- (2) Elementary school boards—public and Roman Catholic separate—should continue to be authorized to requisition from a municipal council, or, in some cases, to levy and collect, sums required from their supporters for the operation and maintenance of their elementary schools only, including, where established, nursery schools and kindergartens.
- (3) Legislative grants to public and Roman Catholic separate school boards should be based upon “cost of operating” (as defined in the Majority Report) elementary schools only, including, where established, kindergartens.
- (4) As set forth in the Majority Report,¹ for purposes of support of public

¹See Chapter XXVIII of the Majority Report.

and Roman Catholic separate schools, rates should be levied only on the rateable property assessed against one or more individual rate-payers; and rates levied on the rateable property of corporations, boards, authorities, committees, commissions, public utilities, and bodies corporate and politic should be allocated to the support of secondary schools and junior colleges only.

- (5) A supporter of a public or separate school should be assessed for the support of public or separate schools, respectively, (including current and capital expenditures) and be assessed separately for the support of post-elementary schools.

We maintain that, subject to the implementation through legislation of the foregoing proposals on a provincial basis, Roman Catholic separate school supporters in a public school area should have the right to elect to have all Roman Catholic separate schools located in the public school area administered by a regional board of education. Further, where in a public school area the Roman Catholic separate school supporters favour this form of administration, the boundaries of the Roman Catholic separate school administrative unit should become conterminous with those of the public school area.

27. We are fully aware of the rights of Roman Catholic separate school supporters as defined in the Act of 1863 and guaranteed by the *British North America Act* and as set forth in the present *Separate Schools Act*. Under provisions of the present statutes¹ the legality of which has not been successfully contested, a separate school corporation may be formed and a separate school may be established by its supporters, and no central or other education authority can exercise control over the process. Short of repeal of the relevant sections of the *British North America Act*, we can see no alternative to a continuance of the present statutory rights. It seems to us that in any public school section where a separate school corporation is not functioning or has not been organized the Roman Catholic residents will always have the right to form a separate school corporation and to establish and operate a separate school in accordance with the present statutory provisions, which are based on the statutes in effect at the time of Confederation. Further, wherever in the province a separate school corporation is functioning, the separate school supporters will always have the right to continue to operate their school or schools under these statutory provisions. Accordingly, we recommend

that it be recognized that, legally, the provisions of the present Separate Schools Act which are in accordance with those in effect at the time of Confederation must be continued in any new legislation or comprehensive education Act.

28. It has been argued that for the purposes of the initial formation of separate school corporations "public school sections" should be interpreted as meaning the small public school sections into which townships were

¹See Sections 18-21, inclusive, *The Separate Schools Act*, R.S.O. 1937.

originally divided. We are of opinion, however, that the public school areas we have recommended, which will supersede the original small public school sections, should constitute public school "sections" for this purpose. We therefore recommend

that the new public school areas be deemed to be public school "sections" for the purpose of the initial formation of a separate school corporation.

29. Even so, the conditions under which any attempt to unify the administration of all publicly supported education must be made are not ideal. But, if the present statutory rights with respect to separate schools are retained and in any action are not adversely affected, in our opinion the possibility of establishing an alternative form of administration for separate schools is not precluded. Our interpretation of the legal position is that any plan involving change must recognize, and begin with, the present legal rights; any deviation from these can be effected only with the consent of the separate school supporters affected; and any alternative form of administration must provide for a return, if the supporters so desire, to the original form. Thus, a change cannot be introduced on a mandatory basis: the choice must rest with the separate school supporters in a public school area. The corollary is that before any change may be made there must first be separate school supporters in the public school area; accordingly, initially, a separate school corporation must be formed and a separate school established and operated under the present statutory provisions.

30. We therefore recommend

- (a) *that, initially, in any public school area in which a separate school corporation has not been previously constituted, a separate school corporation may be constituted and a separate school may be established and operated only under the provisions of the present Separate Schools Act;*
- (b) *that only qualified supporters of such a separate school resident in the public school area in which the school is situate have the right to elect to change the form of administration of such a separate school.*

31. For separate schools we have in mind a type of administration similar to that which we have recommended for public elementary schools:

- (1) Qualified separate school supporters resident in a public school area with boundaries conterminous with those of a city or township which has a population of at least 60,000 may voluntarily elect to relinquish certain specified rights they hold by statute in respect to separate schools, to dissolve their separate school corporation or corporations, as the case may be, and to have their separate school or schools administered by the regional board of education, or, where the public school supporters have not established a regional board of education, to have the separate elementary schools and post-elementary schools

of the region administered by the regional board constituted as a regional board of education.

- (2) Qualified separate school supporters resident in a public school area having a population less than 60,000 may voluntarily elect to relinquish certain specified rights they hold by statute in respect to separate schools and to have the regional board of education of the region in which the public school area is situated act as an intermediate administrative body for matters pertaining to education in separate schools delegated to it by the separate school board, or, where the public school supporters of the region have not established a regional board of education, to have the regional board constituted as a regional board of education for the purposes aforesaid.

32. Where separate school supporters resident in any public school area elect to have their schools administered in whole or in part by a regional board of education (and we suggest election by means of a special plebiscite by secret ballot), we propose that they be permitted to operate their separate school or schools situated in the public school area concerned under the provisions of the statutes relating to public elementary schools. Any separate schools in other public school areas, if any, of the region, however, would, unless their supporters resident within each such area take like action, be required to operate under the provisions of the present *Separate Schools Act*. The specific advantages which we propose should be extended to separate school supporters within a public school area who thus choose to unify the administration of their schools with that of post-elementary, or post-elementary and public elementary, schools, as the case may be, include the following:

- (1) Establishment of a unit of administration for separate school purposes conterminous with the unit for public elementary school purposes.
- (2) Removal of the present restrictions on separate school supporters within the public school area in such matters as residence within three miles of the site of a separate school to qualify to support it, construction and operation of a central school, and transportation of pupils.
- (3) Extension to separate school supporters within such public school area of the right to finance¹ the operation of their school or schools in like manner as a public school, including current and capital expenditures and the same procedure and security in the matter of debenture issues.
- (4) Extension to the separate school board within the public school area and/or to the regional board of education on its behalf in respect to separate schools all the powers, duties, and responsibilities—and likewise all the penalties and prohibitions—of a public school board in respect to public schools.

¹The financing of public and separate schools would in all cases be kept separate, applying in the case of each to their supporters only.

- (5) In all other respects, the application of the provisions for public elementary schools to the subsequent establishment and operation of separate schools within the public school area.

33. In agreeing to operate under the statutes and regulations relating to public schools, the supporters of separate schools would lose some of the freedom they at present enjoy. Implicit in such action, for example, is the acceptance, voluntarily it is true, of the control and authority exercised at present by the Minister of Education with reference to the establishment and closing of schools, and that exercised by a municipal council and the Ontario Municipal Board in the matter of the issuance of debentures. With reference to public schools, however, both these restrictions have been of real value and protection to public school supporters and, in our opinion, should have the same beneficial effect with respect to separate schools.

34. We recommend

- (a) *that provision be made to permit the separate school supporters resident in a public school area, upon application of a specified number of separate school supporters resident in such area, through a special plebiscite (by secret ballot) held for the purpose to elect,*
- (i) *where the public school area (region) is a city or township with a population of at least 60,000, to dissolve their separate school corporation or corporations and to have their separate school or schools administered by the regional board of education, or, where a regional board of education has not been established, to have the separate elementary schools and post-elementary schools of the area (region) administered by the regional board constituted as a regional board of education;*
 - (ii) *in other public school areas, to have the regional board of education act, or, where one has not been established, to have the regional board constituted as a regional board of education to act, as an intermediate administrative body for those matters pertaining to elementary education common to all separate schools of the area and delegated to it by a separate school board established to administer all other matters pertaining to separate schools in the area;*
- (b) *that, where separate school supporters, as a result of such plebiscite, elect to have the separate schools of a public school area administered in whole or in part by a regional board of education, members of the regional board of education, whether or not they are public elementary school supporters, have the right to participate in discussion of, and to vote upon, any motion before the regional board of education.*

35. For any public school area in which the separate school supporters, as a result of such plebiscite, elect to have their separate schools ad-

ministered in whole or in part by a regional board of education, we recommend

- (a) *that there be established for separate school purposes a unit of administration, to be designated a separate school area, with boundaries conterminous with those of the public school area;*
- (b) *that separate schools in such a separate school area be operated by the separate school board, or regional board of education on its behalf, under the provisions of the statutes and regulations relating to public elementary schools.*

36. If the vote on such a special plebiscite records a majority in favour, then at the next election of trustees the new administrative arrangement should be instituted. After at least five years of operation, and not more frequently than once in each five-year period thereafter, another plebiscite may be held under the same conditions, and, if a two-thirds majority of the separate school supporters voting is recorded in favour of revoking the arrangement for administration under a regional board of education, the separate school supporters may revert to administration of separate schools under an autonomous separate school board or boards in accordance with the provisions of the present *Separate Schools Act*. If the affirmative vote cast on the first-mentioned plebiscite records less than a majority in favour of the administration of separate schools in whole or in part under a regional board of education, other plebiscites may be held from time to time after a period of at least five years has elapsed in each case.

37. Our proposals are designed primarily to establish conditions which will make possible the unification of administration of all publicly supported schools under a regional board of education. Subject to the conditions we have specified, where separate school supporters in a public school area voluntarily elect to relinquish certain of their present legal rights and have their schools administered in whole or in part under a regional board of education organization, then—*but only then*—we propose that the restrictions applying to the support and operation of separate schools within such public school area be removed, and their supporters be permitted to operate them in like manner as public elementary schools.

Supervision and Business Administration

38. Under an administrative arrangement of autonomous boards—public school boards, separate school boards, and regional boards—it would be difficult and costly to arrange for local control of the supervision of education, except possibly in densely populated areas where it might be delegated by special permission of the Minister. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that, in those regions where autonomous public school, separate school, and regional boards operate, supervision of education continue to be conducted by officials of the Minister of Education;*
- (b) *that, where a regional board of education is established and an*

autonomous public school or separate school board in a public school area continues in operation, supervision of education in the public schools or separate schools, respectively, of the said public school area continue to be conducted by officials of the Minister of Education.

39. For those regions where a regional board of education has been established for the administration of post-elementary education as well as for public elementary and/or separate elementary education we recommend

- (a) that the regional board of education be empowered to establish a central administrative office and appoint a business administrator and staff to administer all business of the board;*
- (b) that the regional board of education be empowered to employ its own supervisory staff and conduct its own supervision of post-elementary education as well as that of public elementary and/or separate elementary education, subject to the general right of inspection by officials of the Minister of Education as directed by him;*
- (c) that, in such regions, expenditures for services such as supervision by officials of the regional board of education, administration, maintenance of buildings and grounds, transportation, and other common services for public elementary and/or separate elementary schools, be recognized as part of approved cost of elementary education upon which legislative grants will be paid;*
- (d) that where a regional board of education conducts its own supervision of education, an additional amount, to cover a reasonable portion of the cost and based upon the total amount paid in salaries to teachers in the schools under its jurisdiction, be paid in general legislative grants;*
- (e) that, where the region is a city or township with a population of at least 60,000, the regional board of education be deemed to be the public school board and/or separate school board, and be charged with, and possess, all the powers, duties, and responsibilities of a public school board and/or separate school board for the region;*
- (f) that, in other regions, each public school board or separate school board for whom the regional board of education acts as an intermediate administrative body continue to select and appoint its own teachers, the contracts to be drawn with the public school board or separate school board, respectively, and filed with the business administrator of the regional board of education, who should be empowered to issue cheques for salaries on the account of the public school board or separate school board concerned.*

40. We have planned for unity and economy in the administration of all our publicly supported schools and the elimination of some of those

divisive influences in our educational system which make for misunderstanding among our people. We believe that the administrative organization we have suggested is practical and not difficult of implementation. The plan requires only the "desire" and the "will" for its realization.

(*signed*)

RALPH J. NEELANDS

W. L. WHITELOCK

*A. V. CHAPMAN

**SIDNEY SMITH

*I sign, subject to the reservation with respect to Section A contained in my memorandum on page 773.

**I sign, subject to the reservation with respect to Section A contained in my memorandum on page 775.

MEMORANDUM
BY
MR. A. V. CHAPMAN

While my signature to the Majority Report of the Commission indicates that I agree with the findings and conclusions therein expressed, I am sorry I am unable to agree with my colleagues on the following three matters:

(1) *Administration of Education in Publicly Supported Schools*

I subscribe to Section C of the Minority Report submitted by Dr. Neelands and Dr. Whitelock, covering the proposed administration of education in publicly supported elementary schools in the province, wherein provision is made for the co-operative administration of public and separate schools under regional boards of education. I do not therefore support the proposals for the administration of publicly supported schools, in particular those concerning Roman Catholic separate schools, as set forth in the report of the majority.

(2) *Salaries of Teachers in Roman Catholic Separate Schools who belong to a Religious Order or Community*

I cannot agree with the recommendation contained in Chapter XIX, paragraph 38 of the report of the majority. I am of opinion that we should not be concerned with the manner in which a teacher disposes of his salary, once he has received it. I agree with the arguments and recommendations advanced in Section B of the Minority Report submitted by Dr. Neelands and Dr. Whitelock with regard to salaries paid to teachers in Roman Catholic separate schools who are members of a religious order or community. My agreement is, however, subject to the condition that definite satisfactory evidence is made available that payments of the said salaries have been made directly to the teacher in question before any legislative grant can be made available thereon.

(3) *Teacher Training*

I can subscribe to the recommendation in the report of the majority that prospective teachers for elementary schools be trained in a two-year course in junior colleges of education, subject to the condition that it be designed as a measure for the immediate future only. In Chapter XXII, paragraph 37, of the Majority Report, the following statement is made:

It is our hope that requirements for admission may be steadily raised until the possession of a Bachelor's degree from a recognized university is the minimum academic requirement for admission to any teacher-training course in the province.

In my opinion this statement has not been sufficiently emphasized and, owing to its importance, should have been a recommendation. I am unable to subscribe to Section A of the Minority Report submitted by Dr. Neelands and Dr. Whitelock, which suggests an almost immediate four-year training course in certain universities.

(*signed*) A. V. CHAPMAN

MEMORANDUM
BY
DR. SIDNEY E. SMITH

As a signatory to the report of the majority, I subscribe to the recommendations that are therein advanced, subject to the following reservations. I am unable to concur in the proposals of the majority of my fellow-Commissioners with respect to the administration of Roman Catholic separate schools and the salaries to be paid to teachers in Roman Catholic separate schools who are members of a religious order or community. With respect to these two matters I share the views of my colleagues, Dr. Neelands, Dr. Whitelock, and Mr. Chapman, and therefore I subscribe to Section B of that Minority Report, entitled *Salaries of Teachers in Roman Catholic Separate Schools*, and to Section C, entitled *Administration of Education in Publicly Supported Schools*. I do not, however, concur in the proposals set forth in Section A of that Minority Report, entitled *Academic and Professional Preparation of Teachers*. I endorse the proposals relating to the academic and professional preparation of teachers as set forth in the report of the majority of the Commissioners.

(signed) SIDNEY SMITH

MINORITY REPORT AND MEMORANDA

SUBMITTED BY

NON-SIGNATORIES TO THE MAJORITY REPORT

1. MINORITY REPORT by Mr. E. F. Henderson, Mr. Arthur Kelly, Mr. J. M. Pigott, and Mr. Henri Saint-Jacques

APPENDIX—A History of the Roman Catholic Separate School Controversy

2. MEMORANDUM by Mr. Henri Saint-Jacques
3. MEMORANDUM by Mr. W. H. Clarke

MINORITY REPORT

BY

MR. E. F. HENDERSON, MR. ARTHUR KELLY,
MR. J. M. PIGOTT, AND MR. HENRI SAINT-JACQUES

1. Our decision to present a Minority Report has been made only after long and thoughtful consideration. We appreciate the significance of our decision but, while sincerely regretting that we are forced to dissociate ourselves from the findings submitted by our fellow-Commissioners, we feel that we can conscientiously follow no other course. We differ from the majority of the members of the Commission on a number of points of fundamental importance and, consequently, find ourselves unable to concur in their major recommendations.

2. We should like to make it clear that when we first undertook our task and throughout the greater part of the work of the Commission we believed that common ground could be found and solutions acceptable to all members achieved. We did all in our power to attain this goal, even, in an attempt to secure unanimity in the Report, tentatively agreeing to some proposed changes with which we were not in full sympathy—but to no avail. Despite our desire and that of other members of the Commission to reach agreement on specific points under consideration, it finally became evident that it would be impossible to prepare a report to which all members could subscribe.

3. That we were not alone in being unable to support all the recommendations of the majority is witnessed by the submission of a Minority Report signed by four other members of the Commission, Dr. R. J. Neelands, Dr. W. L. Whitelock, Mr. A. V. Chapman, and Dr. Sidney E. Smith. They, too, differed from the majority on matters of principle. We are in agreement with their view as to the desirability of integrating the administration of both forms of elementary education—public and separate—with that of post-elementary education; but the proposals they have made, while closer to those which we make than are those of the majority, are still at variance with our views on a number of important features.

4. We cannot, therefore, subscribe either to the Majority Report or to the Minority Report signed by our fellow-Commissioners, Dr. R. J. Neelands, Dr. W. L. Whitelock, Mr. A. V. Chapman, and Dr. Sidney E. Smith.

5. Like perhaps many other members of the Commission, we disagree with the findings and recommendations contained in the Majority Report on many points of minor importance. Of course this alone would not warrant

the submission on our part of a minority report; in fact if disagreement on minor matters were the sole point at issue, we would have overlooked these differences of opinion and supported the findings of the majority of the Commission. But, we reiterate, our disagreement is on matters of fundamental importance. We are confident that when we have expressed our views and put forward certain concrete proposals our position with respect to the more important specific recommendations contained in the Majority Report will be apparent.

BASES OF DISAGREEMENT

General

6. Although it might be expected that the basis for our disagreement would be found mainly in the recommendations relating to separate schools, we have found outside this sphere cogent reasons for refusing to concur in the report of the majority. One of the major reasons why we do not subscribe to the Majority Report is the complete lack in it of any data on the cost of implementing its recommendations and on the financial ability of the province to support the proposed reorganized educational system. In the light of the relevancy of the question of cost, we cannot feel otherwise than that the report of the majority of the Commission has failed to present essential data which would have made possible a reasonably accurate estimate of the cost entailed. Evidence is not lacking that the cost of education has already become an almost overwhelming burden upon rateable property liable for the local share of the cost of education. The provincial contribution, designed to relieve the local burden and to equalize its bearing on the local taxpayer, has reached a point where, in the light of the sources of provincial revenue, one may well question the ability of the provincial treasury to continue under varying economic conditions to meet the present aggregate of the province's share of the cost of education. We feel that the majority of the members of the Commission have erred in that they have made their decisions without the benefit of factual material which would have shown the financial implications of the various proposals. As a minimum, we believe data should have been given with reference to the total cost of the proposed reorganization of the educational system; with reference to the cost, separately, of each of the proposed major changes; and with reference to the financial ability of the province to assume an additional share of the present and prospective future expenditures on education. Neglect to explore and report upon these important phases constitutes a serious defect in the Majority Report. We feel that before any decision can be made in regard to implementing the Majority Report further studies and investigations will have to be made to obtain the necessary information as to cost.

7. A further reason for our disagreement, and one of general application, lies in the lack of realism in the recommendations of the majority. As we see it, the majority have striven to set up what might be termed an

“ideal” or “model” system of education with but little reference to the nature and variety of the conditions which exist today and of those which may exist in the immediate future. The proposals submitted involve elimination of the traditional small school sections and the substitution therefor—except in the case of separate schools—of large units of administration; a reduction in the number of local education authorities; decentralization of control over the *externa* and *interna* of education—requiring delegation by the central authority of much of its powers in relation to education; an enlargement of the powers of local education authorities coupled with proposals which would place the local administration and supervision of education largely, if not entirely, in the hands of professional experts; and the discontinuance of small local schools, elementary and secondary, in favour of the establishment of large central or consolidated schools. In connection with this last mentioned proposal, it should be borne in mind that the recommendations of the majority, if implemented, will necessitate embarkation upon a school building programme of substantial dimensions and the development of a system of transportation (or services in lieu thereof) which may apply to perhaps 50 per cent of the children of school age in our province.

8. While we heartily subscribe to the principle of providing for our children the best possible education our financial and other resources permit and of leaving to each local education authority as large a measure of autonomy as it is fitted to assume, in our opinion the changes recommended—to be accomplished within the short period of not more than three years—are unnecessarily drastic and needlessly disruptive and may by their unrestricted scope defeat the very ends they are designed to accomplish. For one thing, the wholesale uprooting of long-established practices will inevitably meet with local resistance. For another, the Majority Report shows evidence of a striving after uniformity for the sake of uniformity, despite the fact that strict uniformity is inconsistent with the desire enunciated in other sections of the report to place the control of education in the hands of the people in each community. Standardization may well mean an averaging, perhaps the bringing of all to the level of mediocrity, not the encouragement of initiative, of experimentation, and of local improvement and adaptations. Further, insufficient recognition has been given to the good features of the prevailing system. And too little consideration has been shown for the necessity of adaptation to meet local needs and situations; this is of paramount importance in a province such as ours which covers a vast territory and in which conditions vary greatly from one locality to another.

9. Under the reorganization proposed by the majority, the divisions of the educational system are to be ordered in accordance with a plan which looks to the work of psychologists for its justification. Even if it is assumed that the currently popular views of these experts will not be superseded in

the future by opinions inconsistent with those held at present, we feel that in recommending that the second stage—ages 12 to 16—be placed under the direction of post-elementary school boards, the majority have failed to give due weight to several considerations that in our opinion lend support to the placement of this stage of education under the jurisdiction of elementary school boards:

- (1) Pupils in the age group 12 to 16 years will find it easier and more satisfactory to associate with those in the age group 6 to 12 years than with those over 16 years of age. Having regard to this fact and to the needs and interests of these pupils, the administration by one education authority of the whole span of the ages of compulsory school attendance would, in our opinion, lead to a harmony and co-ordination without the elaborate provision to bring together the two first stages of the proposed educational system made necessary when they are administered by different boards.
- (2) Teachers for pupils of the age group 12-16 years can be more readily provided from the ranks of those trained for service in elementary schools who have specialized in teaching in the senior grades than from the ranks of those trained for service in the secondary schools. Although the number of teachers in our present secondary schools and the number of candidates applying for admission to the Ontario College of Education indicate that a reasonably adequate supply of teachers is, and will be, available for secondary schools under the present organization of the educational system, further demands upon the supply of such teachers to staff the proposed secondary schools and junior colleges would be met, if at all, only with extreme difficulty.
- (3) The inclusion of pupils of the age group 12 to 16 years under a post-elementary school authority will make more difficult the provision of buildings to accommodate all pupils of the school system. A single education authority responsible for the education of all students in its area within the ages of compulsory school attendance should find it possible far more readily to adapt to future needs its present available physical accommodation than could be expected of two independent education authorities.
- (4) The classification of the second stage of the educational system—ages 12 to 16—as secondary and the allocation of responsibility for this stage to a post-elementary school authority will tend to increase the per-pupil cost of educating the children of this age group, but there is no assurance of any corresponding increase in the efficiency of the instruction provided. Teacher costs and building costs will certainly be higher, and no proof has been given in the Majority Report that such increased expenditures are necessary in order to make proper provision for the education of members of this age group.

10. While it may well be that under prevailing conditions the disadvantages of the small local school point to the desirability of larger schools and large attendance areas, we feel that in advocating central schools and transportation to them of a large proportion of the children in the province, or, as an alternative, the provision of residential facilities in connection with the school, regard has not been had for the undesirable effect on the pupils affected and their families. The transportation of pupils to, or the provision of residential facilities at, a central school will remove the child from the family circle and its influence for longer periods than will maintain where the child attends a neighbourhood or local school conveniently located with reference to his home. The unfortunate trend toward the transference of the parents' function to the school cannot help but receive further impetus when children are, perforce, away from home for longer than the instructional hours of the school, and the admitted needed restoration of home and family influence will be further retarded. Particularly in rural areas, the training received by a child through the assignment to him of duties around the home—"the chores"—has long been a valuable contribution to the development of a sense of personal responsibility to the family group and to others, without which the growing child becomes a selfish and self-centred individualist. And this all without consideration being given to the increase in cost to the individual parent—an increase which cannot help but result even if we assume that the actual costs of transportation and residence are borne by the education authority. In settling upon the optimum size of the attendance area, efficiency in school administration and in instruction within the classroom should not be the sole consideration; the effect upon the pupils in the matters we have referred to should also be a determining factor acting against the unrestricted enlargement of school attendance areas.

11. The recommendation for the establishment of a Central Advisory Council appears to be a failure, perhaps an unconscious one, to recognize the constitutional foundation of our system of government. In responsible government as it operates in our province the members of the Executive Council (the Cabinet) are responsible to the elected representatives of the people for the government of the people within the field of legislative power assigned to the province by the *British North America Act*. The policy of the government in power must be developed by the members of the Ministry (usually by the Minister of the Department concerned), who, as members of the Executive, hold office only so long as they enjoy the confidence of the elected Legislature. The interjection of an Advisory Council would weaken this chain of responsibility. Such a Council would be either a ministerially dominated body upon which the Cabinet could place the blame for policies which proved to be unpopular or a strong and independent body whose views would embarrass the government in the discharge of its duties. In our opinion, this recommendation goes far beyond the administration of

the educational system and, of necessity, involves the reform of the machinery of the constitution—a subject of investigation and report beyond the terms of reference of this Commission.

In the Matter of Roman Catholic Separate Schools

12. The particular chapters of the Majority Report which relate to separate schools fail on a number of counts to reflect a careful and objective study of separate schools and an appreciation of their place in the system of publicly supported education in Ontario. Perhaps the key to the spirit and the attitude of the majority is to be found in their expressed disposition toward the separate schools of Ontario:

Whatever may have been our views as individual members of the Commission when we entered upon our task, as a result of our careful and objective study of the problem of separate schools the majority would, if the Commission were in the happy position of recommending the organization of an educational system for Ontario unfettered by the past, vigorously oppose permissive authority for the establishment of denominational schools of any description as a part of the system . . .¹

Approaching the problem with no toleration of the *de facto* existence of separate schools, the majority have failed to recognize that the welfare of all the children of Ontario demands that all common schools—public and separate—must be in a position to offer the best possible education to our future citizens. Many annoying restrictions are to be introduced that would make more difficult the establishment and operation of separate schools and the fulfilment of the wishes of those who desire to have them. There is no evidence of any intention on the part of the majority of the Commissioners to accord to Roman Catholic separate schools the improvements in administration and supervision deemed essential for the other form of common schools. Similarly, although it is contended that separate schools are a part of the common school system—a special form thereof—practical materialization of this concept is most evident only where it accomplishes curtailment of the field and scope of Roman Catholic separate schools, but becomes almost unnoticeable where it would enlarge the sphere of these schools to the same extent as the public schools of the same common school system. To cite but one of many examples, the curtailment of the elementary school programme is to apply to both public and separate schools, but the proposal for the establishment of large units of administration, advocated by the Majority Report as one of the most fundamental of the proposed changes for the betterment of education, is to be applicable only to the new public elementary schools.

13. Lest we be misunderstood, we should perhaps first state we believe that a larger unit of administration determined with proper regard to the welfare of the children as well as to the economy and efficiency of internal

¹*Report of the Royal Commission on Education in Ontario, 1950; Chapter XIX: Roman Catholic Separate Schools in the Reorganized Educational System, paragraph 18.*

operation is desirable, equally for both public and separate schools. But where larger units of administration are established for public schools only and corresponding units are not established for separate schools, a most confusing situation develops. This has happened under the present provisions for the formation of township school areas for public school purposes. What is frequently overlooked is that, generally speaking, under the present *Separate Schools Act* and under preceding *Separate Schools Acts* the public school section is, subject to the restriction imposed by the three mile limit, the basis for the establishment, operation, and financial support of a separate school. Naturally, therefore, any enlargement of the area of public school sections directly affects separate schools, more particularly in financing and in security for moneys borrowed, since the basis for the administration of the separate school has been altered. If the unit for the administration of the public school system recommended by the majority is larger in area than that of a circle having a radius of three miles, the anomalous situation will arise that a separate school board formed therein will have no authority to provide separate schools and teachers for all those in the area who would wish to avail themselves of these facilities. And the formation of such a board may prevent other Catholics within the area from accomplishing their desire to provide a separate school for the education of their children.

14. As is well known, separate schools have long enjoyed the right to provide a programme extending from kindergarten to the end of grade X. But this right to conduct the higher grades—which had its origin in pre-Confederation years—is, in the recommendations of the majority, to be removed and the extent of the programme to be provided in Roman Catholic separate schools cut practically in half. In addition to the fact that it can be argued that legislation to implement such a recommendation would be *ultra vires* the provincial Legislature, such a drastic reduction or curtailment will be most disturbing to a substantial part of the people of Ontario and need not be expected to be accepted without protest or implemented without opposition. The mere statement that the *British North America Act* does not expressly prohibit such a re-grading does not commend itself to us as an adequate and satisfactory reason for the submission by the majority of this specific recommendation. No more effective stimulus to the further development of Catholic private secondary schools could be imagined; the inevitable result must be to remove farther than ever the possibility of interesting Catholics in a wider use of the facilities of publicly supported post-elementary schools.

15. The statements that were made in 1858 by Ryerson are equally true today and are worthy of serious consideration in this connection:

Ought it not also to be recollected, that giving corporate powers to a number of private individuals, or a large religious community, and taking away those corporate powers, are two very different things; and though conferring them in the first place may have been unwise and objectionable, yet depriving the parties

of them after having received and employed them may be still more unwise and objectionable . . .¹

My belief is, that in view of the past, present, and future, the separate school clauses of the school law ought not to be interfered with, either by making an iota of concession to the unreasonable demands of ultra-religious propagandists, or by taking away an iota of the rights granted to and possessed by Roman Catholics during nearly twenty years . . .²

16. The majority have outlined in considerable detail the position of separate schools relative to, and the protection afforded to the groups specified therein by, Section 93 of the *British North America Act*. We need not quote the statutory provisions or the arguments advanced by the majority, or the implications drawn therefrom. But we feel impelled to draw attention to what seems to us to be false logic and an insecure foundation for the conclusion based upon it: to wit, the attempt in the Majority Report to seek to prove that the protection of the rights of Roman Catholics with respect to separate schools provided by the *British North America Act* precludes any change, beneficial or prejudicial, and forever limits separate schools to the position occupied prior to Confederation. To argue in this vein reveals misunderstanding of the nature of the protection given through Section 93 of the *British North America Act* and is an attempt to read into that section of the Act a meaning that neither can be found in its text nor has ever been attributed to it by judicial interpretation. The position is, to put it simply, that the field of education in this province has been assigned to the Legislature and that within this field it may enact laws as it deems expedient *provided only* that it does not thereby prejudicially affect the rights held by statute with respect to separate schools. A minimum is guaranteed; so long as that minimum is not encroached upon, changes may be freely made as the Legislature sees fit. It was never intended and, so far as we have been able to ascertain, never before contended that the effect of Section 93 of the *British North America Act* was to preclude any enlargement of, or improvement in, the rights relating to separate schools. Perhaps the exposition of the situation to be found in the words of Mr. Justice Meredith, contained in a judgment rendered in a case tried before him in the Supreme Court of Ontario, is a better one than we are able to make and one that, by its nature, carries the weight of judicial interpretation:

The narrow view that the Imperial enactment made all the provisions of the Separate Schools Act, in force at the time of the passing of the Imperial Act, unalterable, is without any kind of substantial support, as the great many changes since made, and made apparently without any kind of objection, shews: important changes, turning an Act of 28 Sections covering less than a half dozen pages of the statute-book, into one of 92 Sections, covering 32 pages.

The right and privilege which the Separate Schools Act conferred when the Imperial enactment became law, and which the Separate Schools Acts have ever

¹Egerton Ryerson, *Special Report on the Separate School Provisions of the School Law of Upper Canada, etc.*, 1858, p. 17.

²*Ibid.*

since conferred, and still confers, was and is a right to separation, to separate public schools of the like character, and maintained in the like manner, as the general public schools. The machinery may be altered, the educational methods may be changed, from time to time, to keep pace with advanced educational systems. It was never meant that the separate schools, or any other schools, should be left forever in the educational wilderness of the enactments in force in 1867. Educational methods and machinery may and must change, but separation, and equal rights regarding public schools must remain as long as provincial public schools last...¹

17. Equally fallacious, in our opinion, is the assumption running through those parts of the Majority Report dealing with separate schools that the enjoyment of rights by Roman Catholics with respect to separate schools depends on the establishment and operation of a separate school having no harmful effect on any public school. In other words, the position has apparently been taken that the interests of the public schools are, in all cases, paramount and that the erection and continued operation of a separate school can be tolerated only if there can be no possible adverse reaction upon the public school. Many years ago, an Ontario judge, in framing the judgment from which we have previously quoted, felt called upon to remark: The modern fashion of applying the short name 'public schools' to the general public schools, which were in the earlier days called 'common' or 'Union schools', and more appropriately so called and of applying the short name 'Separate Schools' to the particular public schools separated from the general ones under the Separate Schools Act, is no excuse for misunderstanding their true character of, all alike, public schools, maintained in the public interests and for the public welfare. Since the establishment of a separate school will almost always have some effect on a public school, to limit the application of *The Separate Schools Act* as suggested in the Majority Report would be contrary to the very existence which is guaranteed and would read into the *British North America Act* words that cannot be found in it, the absence of which clearly indicates the intention of its framers that it should not be so read.

18. The historical sketch of the origin and development of separate schools appearing in the Majority Report has been restricted, in the main, to a recitation of changes in legislation. Little or no documentary evidence has been given to indicate the reasons for the changes made from time to time and, consequently, the history is almost meaningless and certainly most unenlightening. The supporting or explanatory material, where included, has been based almost entirely on the writings of two men, neither of whom is renowned for impartiality. In neither chapter has the history been written from an objective and unbiased point of view. In our opinion one side only has been presented. There is much that could be said on the other side, based on authentic original documents, as witness the attached appendix of historical material, bearing upon the same topics, which we have had prepared, largely from sources readily available within this province.

¹*Ottawa Separate School Trustees vs. City of Ottawa*, 1925, 34 O.L.R. p. 624 at p. 630.

19. The reader of the historical sketch of separate schools contained in the Majority Report is left with erroneous impressions on certain matters of basic importance. Taking this history at its face value, it would appear that those advocating separate schools had not held consistently to the same views as to the essentiality of separate schools and had in the period of Ryerson's administration varied the grounds upon which they based their views.¹ The majority of the Commission have attempted through a quotation from Ryerson to show what was the attitude of Catholics to separate schools and the reason why they were advocated.¹ In view of the wealth of original material available in Ontario and elsewhere on this subject and the contemporaneous expression in Upper Canada at that time of the views of advocates of separate schools, it is to be regretted that one man's estimate of what many others thought was selected in preference to the written expression by the others of their own views. This has led to misunderstanding as to the position of Catholics as a whole with respect to the education of their children and to the impression that at 1850 a change in attitude occurred.

20. The quotations given in the appendix to our Minority Report, which were selected from original documents, will be quite sufficient to indicate that earlier than 1850, and even in this country, separate schools were advanced not merely as a protection against insult and oppression, but as a theory based on the traditional Catholic views as to education.

21. We fully appreciate that many who are not Catholics hold strong views as to the sterility of an education in which religion does not hold a dominant position. While it is not an exclusively Catholic point of view, it is an essential one in the Catholic philosophy of education. Perhaps at this point it would be advisable to endeavour briefly to explain wherein Catholic educational philosophy differs from that of the advocates of non-sectarian schools. Catholics are as strong as others in advocating education for citizenship and place no less importance on a sound training in the usual subjects of the curriculum. Why then do Catholics not accept non-sectarian schools and separate religious instruction as being equivalent to schools in which education embodies religion to the extent that it permeates all teaching? Catholic philosophy is theocentric; Catholic life and thought and education have God as their basis. It furthermore recognizes not only an order of grace, but also an order of nature; and, within nature, both the realm of the spiritual and the realm of the material. It recognizes, in other words, the superiority of revelation over reason and of the soul over the body. The child at birth as a descendant of Adam is held to be a creature of nature without supernatural grace, which God intended him to have but which Adam rejected. Through incorporation with Christ, who lived and died for man's salvation, the child is raised to a state of grace and thus re-united with

¹*Report of the Royal Commission on Education in Ontario, 1950, Chapter XVIII: Origin and Development of Separate Schools in Ontario, paragraph 26.*

God, the Source of supernatural life. It is, therefore, the primary function of the Church and of Catholic education to ensure the child's salvation in the light of these truths. The obvious educational implication is that the entire work of the school must be conducive to this end, or, in other words, that the teaching of all subjects related to human life and conduct must be permeated with the Catholic religious point of view. The reason for this is even more apparent in the light of Catholic tenets regarding the nature of truth. It is held that the human mind can attain truth, though even with regard to truth about the natural world the pupil needs help and direction which it is the duty of the school to give. For supernatural truth, there is need of a divine revelation which it is the work of the Church and the school to teach. In the light of these beliefs that have been held for centuries, it will be seen how far Ryerson was mistaken when he declared that the expression of them in 1850 was an innovation.

22. A not inconsiderable portion of the Majority Report has been given over to a discussion of the so-called "final settlement" of 1863 and its alleged perpetuation by the provisions of the *British North America Act* of 1867. It is not clear from what is contained in the report of the majority whether the "final settlement" is thought to be embodied in the Act of 1863 or in the antecedent conduct of certain persons to which reference is made.

23. If by the "settlement" it is intended to refer to the meeting between Egerton Ryerson and Vicars-General Cazeau and Macdonnell, an account of which is given in the text of the Majority Report, it is only natural to seek to find if such a "settlement" could have been made, who were the parties to it, and what authority they had to contract a "final settlement".

24. What authority could any two clerics of the Catholic Church have to speak on behalf of, and bind for eternity, the present and future generations of separate school ratepayers of what is now Ontario? What mandate did, or could, Ryerson—who was an officer of the Crown, a civil servant, owing a duty to all the people—have to speak on behalf of, or bind for eternity, one part of the present and future population of what is now Ontario? Would Ryerson's action have been supported and adhered to, for example, if he had sacrificed the interests of the public schools?

25. To such questions the answers are obvious and lead inevitably to the conclusion that in the events prior to the passing of the Act of 1863 there was not, nor, under the circumstances, could there have been, a "final settlement".

26. By "the final settlement", therefore, must have been meant the Act of 1863, a public statute of the Province of Canada. But, since statutes are the medium by which the governing body discharges its duty to make laws for the ordering of its people, no statute can be final to the extent of precluding its repeal or amendment by the body which enacted it where the discharge of that same duty at a subsequent period requires the alteration of the earlier enactment. Finality in legislation there never can be. Laws

set forth in statutes are man-made rules of conduct which must be altered to suit as conditions—or men—change. Consequently, no “final settlement” could have been accomplished by the Act of 1863.

27. The only other possible place in which a “final settlement” could have been wrought would have been the Act of 1867. This also was a statute, to which all that has been said about the Act of 1863 would apply. In addition, as we have noted earlier, the wording of Section 93 of the *British North America Act* is such that it is abundantly clear that a “final settlement” such as that referred to and supported in the Majority Report was not contemplated. The jurisdiction with regard to education conferred on the Provincial Legislature of Ontario was absolute, save only as to the restriction on enactments which would prejudicially affect the school rights of the minority, and contained no reference, expressed or implied, from which could be spelled out a “final settlement” as contended in the Majority Report.

28. The right of Roman Catholics to establish and operate separate schools cannot be gainsaid, and the desire is expressed in the Majority Report that freedom of action in these regards be not curtailed. But the exercise of this unchallenged right is to be hedged about by many restrictions. The three-mile limit circumscribing freedom to support separate schools is to be retained; additional formalities have been proposed which will render more difficult the exercise of the right of a Roman Catholic to become, and to remain, a separate school supporter and to secure exemption from the payment of taxes for the support of public schools; limitations for legislative grant purposes are to be imposed on the amount of salary which may be paid to a teacher in a separate school who is a member of a religious order or community; the right to establish separate schools in territory without municipal organization is to be revoked; and the formation of separate school corporations and the establishment and operation of separate schools are to be hampered by the requirement of reference to the Central Advisory Council. Many other examples of a like nature could be cited, but these will suffice to illustrate how the proposals in the Majority Report seek to obstruct the operation of separate schools without directly abolishing them.

29. The 1945 grant scheme and the 1950 grant plan are unsatisfactory on two points of basic importance in so far as elementary schools are concerned: they fail to achieve equalization of the local burden of support of education; and, as between public and separate schools, they do not follow the basis set forth in the Separate Schools Act of 1863 and guaranteed by the *British North America Act*. In discussing the distribution of legislative grants to public and separate school boards, the majority have not mentioned the fact that in 41 of the past 50 years Roman Catholic separate schools have been unjustly deprived of their due share of the total of the legislative grants paid to public and separate schools. Section 20 of the

Separate Schools Act of 1863, confirmed in the *British North America Act*, stipulated that separate schools were entitled "to a share in the fund annually granted by the Legislature of this Province for the support of Common Schools . . . according to the average number of pupils attending . . .", and this basis was strictly adhered to for many years. It has not been followed in the present century, and, except for one short interval of nine years, the bases adopted for the distribution of legislative grants have been to the advantage of public schools and at the expense of separate schools. We show in Table 1 for each of the years from 1901 to 1950 inclusive the amounts actually paid in legislative grants to separate schools and the amounts which would have been paid had the basis in effect been in accordance with the requirement of the *British North America Act*. We estimate that, during this period, separate schools have been deprived of revenue amounting to approximately \$18,700,000, including interest on the amounts unjustly withheld. In some years the amount withheld was even larger than the amount actually received. In the light of these facts, it is small wonder that separate schools have experienced financial difficulties.

30. The adverse effect has been particularly marked under the grant scheme introduced in 1945; each year since that date separate schools have lost at least \$1,000,000 in legislative grants. It must be remembered, too, that the public schools gain what the separate schools lose—a feature of the grant scheme which makes it doubly inequitable; the relief which should have been afforded to local separate school ratepayers was withheld and given to public school ratepayers. The 1945 grant scheme—and the new grant plan introduced in 1950, which is but an adaptation of the former—as it applies to elementary schools used as a basis for the calculation of the grant payable to a school board the expenditures made by it during the preceding calendar year. As a result, boards in wealthier areas were favoured, since they could afford to expend more money on their schools, whereas boards in poorer areas were penalized because of their poverty and consequent financial inability to expend larger sums. This inequity was accentuated as between public and separate schools because separate school boards, almost without exception, have more limited financial resources than do public school boards. Thus, separate school boards start with an initial financial handicap and because of it are unable to secure their due share of the total amount available for distribution in legislative grants; as a result, supporters of separate schools have to pay higher local rates than do public school supporters, and the original inequality in local financial resources is continued and even increased as education costs increase.

31. The grant plan proposed in the Majority Report is based on the same false premises and is subject to the same criticisms. Under it, legislative grants are to be calculated on the basis of expenditures of the preceding calendar year. Under no circumstances, therefore, can it achieve the equalization it purports to give; nor can it be argued that it is in accord

LEGISLATIVE GRANTS TO PUBLIC AND SEPARATE SCHOOLS FROM 1901 TO 1950, SHOWING LOSS TO SEPARATE SCHOOLS
BECAUSE GRANT WAS NOT PAID IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE BRITISH NORTH AMERICA ACT

Year	Total	Grants paid to Public Schools	Grants paid to Separate Schools	Grants to Separate Schools if paid in accordance with statutory requirements	Gain or loss in grants paid to Separate Schools		Interest compounded annually at 4% on accumulated balance	Accumulated balances of grant and compound interest
					Overpayment	Underpayment		
1901	\$ 377,308	\$ 348,511	\$ 28,797	\$ 38,775	\$	\$ 9,978	\$	\$ 9,978
1902	383,666	353,194	30,472	42,283		11,811	399	22,188
1903	390,156	357,964	32,192	44,279		12,087	888	35,163
1904	405,362	372,312	33,050	47,177		14,127	1,407	50,697
1905	414,004	380,463	33,541	50,209		16,668	2,028	69,393
1906	509,795	470,317	39,478	63,285		23,807	2,776	95,976
1907	655,239	614,715	40,524	82,365		41,841	3,839	141,656
1908	770,426	714,078	56,348	96,963		40,615	5,666	187,937
1909	810,595	755,251	55,344	102,012		46,668	7,517	242,122
1910	805,635	752,642	52,993	104,918		51,925	9,685	303,732
1911	892,377	833,288	59,089	118,073		58,984	12,149	374,865
1912	842,279	790,433	51,846	114,927		63,081	14,995	452,941
1913	778,150	737,712	40,438	107,211		66,773	18,118	537,832
1914	760,845	716,377	44,468	104,328		59,860	21,513	619,205
1915	849,872	807,740	42,132	115,381		73,249	24,768	717,222
1916	831,988	786,152	45,836	116,879		71,043	28,689	816,954
1917	907,846	844,719	63,127	124,340		61,213	32,678	910,845
1918	970,585	901,972	68,613	130,404		61,791	36,434	1,009,070
1919	1,316,529	1,217,482	99,047	181,260		82,213	40,363	1,131,646
1920	1,630,836	1,497,164	133,672	233,070		99,398	45,266	1,276,310
1921	2,454,019	2,257,736	196,283	363,297		167,014	51,052	1,494,376
1922	2,976,712	2,780,749	195,963	454,521		258,558	59,775	1,812,709
1923	3,266,584	3,048,963	217,621	495,170		277,549	72,508	2,162,766
1924	3,392,552	3,150,895	241,657	533,398		291,741	86,509	2,541,016
1925	3,401,863	3,162,518	239,345	545,261		305,916	101,641	2,948,573
1926	3,345,309	3,073,879	271,430	532,811		261,381	117,943	3,327,897
1927	3,404,647	3,108,370	296,277	557,435		261,158	133,116	3,722,171
1928	3,507,364	3,207,949	299,415	571,616		272,201	148,887	4,143,259
1929	3,686,301	3,318,071	368,230	625,067		256,837	205,730	4,605,826
1930	3,753,499	3,396,681	356,818	641,390		284,572	184,233	5,074,631

(Continued on next page)

TABLE 1
(Continued)

Year	Total	Grants paid to Public Schools	Grants paid to Separate Schools	Grants to Separate Schools if paid in accordance with statutory requirements	Gain or loss in grants paid to Separate Schools		Interest compounded annually at 4% on accumulated balance	Accumulated balances of grant and compound interest
					Overpayment	Underpayment		
1931	\$ 4,102,448	\$ 3,614,516	\$ 487,932	\$ 714,163	\$	\$ 226,231	\$202,985	\$ 5,503,847
1932	3,847,696	3,312,585	535,111	688,438		153,327	220,154	5,877,328
1933	3,356,314	2,812,961	543,353	607,312		63,959	234,423	6,175,710
1934	3,237,520	2,697,039	540,481	590,604		50,123	247,028	6,472,861
1935	3,013,917	2,469,022	544,895	542,834	2,061		258,914	6,729,714
1936	3,165,834	2,601,815	564,019	582,534		18,515	269,189	7,017,416
1937	3,776,570	3,048,392	728,178	711,190	16,988		280,726	7,281,124
1938	4,419,300	3,439,051	980,249	836,272	143,977		291,245	7,428,392
1939	4,634,670	3,593,213	1,041,457	892,946	148,511		297,136	7,577,017
1940	4,734,640	3,655,340	1,079,300	896,482	182,818		303,081	7,697,280
1941	5,288,707	4,174,812	1,113,895	1,070,012	43,883		307,891	7,961,288
1942	5,592,708	4,371,610	1,221,098	1,088,608	132,490		318,449	8,147,247
1943	6,117,516	4,866,215	1,251,301	1,202,901	48,400		325,890	8,424,737
1944	6,755,831	5,438,240	1,317,591	1,311,626	5,965		336,989	8,755,761
1945	17,800,960	15,413,695	2,387,265	3,489,166		1,101,901	356,230	10,207,892
1946	19,406,061	16,782,469	2,623,592	3,950,940		1,327,348	408,316	11,943,556
1947	19,480,861	16,891,611	2,589,250	3,625,020		1,035,770	477,742	13,457,068
^a 1948	18,895,961	16,362,592	2,533,369	3,688,375		1,155,006	538,283	15,150,357
^a 1949	18,895,961	16,362,592	2,533,369	3,688,375		1,155,006	606,014	16,911,377
^a 1950	18,895,961	16,362,592	2,533,369	3,688,375		1,155,006	676,454	18,742,869
TOTAL	\$123,911,779	\$93,028,659	\$30,883,120	\$41,204,278	\$725,093	\$11,046,251	\$8,421,711	

^aEstimated.

SUMMARY STATEMENT

Total aggregate grants actually paid to Separate Schools.....	\$30,883,120
Total aggregate grants if paid in accordance with statutory requirements.....	41,204,278
Deficiency in grants actually paid.....	\$10,321,158
Value of the use of \$10,321,158 computed on the annual balances at the rate of 4% compounded annually ..	8,421,711
Aggregate present value of deficiency.....	\$18,742,869

with the basis set forth in pre-Confederation statutes. No grant plan based on expenditures can achieve equality either between or among public and separate schools. On this basis, wealthy boards always win, and poorer boards always lose.

32. In a later section we give an example of a grant plan which does achieve equality both between and among public and separate schools. Whether or not this grant plan is adopted, we wish again to draw attention to the fact that with respect to the share of grants paid to separate schools there is a constitutional minimum which must be observed in any grant plan.

OUR PROPOSALS

Administration

33. We disagree with the recommendation of the Majority Report that the jurisdiction of elementary school authorities should be drastically curtailed and limited to the provision of educational facilities for pupils below age 12. As has been recognized by the Minister of Education in his recent proposals with respect to the reorganization of the curriculum, which are practically identical with those proposed by the majority of this Commission, the weight of evidence is in favour of retention of the present division of responsibility. For many years, it is worth repeating, public and separate school boards have been authorized to provide instruction in courses up to and including grade X. Further, there is much to be said from an administrative point of view for considering as a unit the programme covering the full period of compulsory school attendance. Any division for administrative purposes of this natural unit is, in our opinion, completely artificial, illogical, and unjustified. True, the division proposed by the majority—at age 12—will, if implemented, result in a re-grading of separate schools and a drastic reduction in the extent of their jurisdiction, but this cannot be advanced as a valid reason for the proposed change.

34. If, however, the recommendations of the majority as to the regrading of schools on a 6-4-3 basis and the establishment of larger units of administration for post-elementary education of approximately the size of a county are adopted, some adjustment with respect to separate schools must be made in order that they may continue to be, and to be recognized as, an equal partner in the common school system. The recommendations which follow in paragraphs 35 to 46 inclusive constitute our proposals for separate schools in the event that the recommended changes in grading and administration of the Majority Report are put into effect. They are put forward not as a system to be adopted for separate schools in any event, regardless of the future of public schools, but as a means of making applicable to separate schools, in so far as is compatible with the rights of separate school supporters, the plan which may become effective in the public school system if the report of the majority is implemented.

35. We recommend

- (a) *that, in accordance with past and present practice, provision of educational facilities for the first two stages of the new educational system—extending to age 16, the end of the period of compulsory school attendance—be primarily the responsibility of elementary school authorities;*¹
- (b) *that provision of educational facilities for the third stage of the new educational system—junior colleges—be primarily the responsibility of post-elementary school authorities.*

36. For convenience of discussion, we have designated elementary school boards as public and separate school boards, and post-elementary school authorities as regional boards. But where these terms are used hereafter in our report the jurisdiction of the respective boards is to be interpreted, unless stated otherwise, as specified in our recommendation in the immediately preceding paragraph.

37. In the report of the majority it was recommended that regional boards should be elected by all qualified ratepayers whether or not they had chosen in the elementary school field to support separate schools. We are in full agreement with this principle of elected boards and unrestricted franchise for all qualified ratepayers, and, further, we wish to state that in our opinion this recommendation, if implemented, will remove what has long been considered by separate school supporters to be a great injustice. In the present statutory provisions for the election of boards of education, which may conceivably be continued, only public school supporters are conceded a vote; and separate school supporters are wrongfully disenfranchised. Actually, each and every ratepayer should be—and, with this exception, in fact is—equal in matters relating to secondary school education. We believe the only just and legal position is that every qualified ratepayer should have the right to vote at the election of members of the authority which maintains and operates post-elementary schools.

38. Conditions being what they are, however, we foresee one difficulty that may arise and occasion considerable dissatisfaction if this recommendation of the Majority Report is implemented. The thought which prompted the decision that all boards should be elected is surely that by this means all qualified electors would be represented on such a board. While this is true generally, or may be over a long period of time, it may happen in practice that a substantial group of electors may, through force of circumstances, never be able to secure the election of a member, or of a proportionate number of members, whom they consider truly represents them. Of course, this is a recognized consequence of a general franchise, and, although in ordinary circumstances the effect is of small moment, it is a weakness of the system serious enough to have resulted in the development of numerous plans to overcome it. It is recognized, to mention but

¹See paragraph 34.

one example, in those cases where elections are held by wards rather than at large. While the method of election by wards does remedy the defect in many instances, it is not of much assistance in the problem we have in mind. The existence in part of our educational system of public and separate schools immediately defines two groups of electors, united though they may be for purposes of post-elementary education. This is but one of the facts which must be recognized: in some way the representation of both groups in the membership of the regional board should be assured and, as nearly as possible, proportionately to the numbers of supporters of each. In some parts of our province separate school supporters are in a minority (this is probably always the situation in the case of Protestant separate schools), but in other parts public school supporters are in a minority. We do not plead on behalf of one side or the other: our position is that above all else we desire that regional boards operate effectively and with a minimum of friction.

39. We believe that it would be wiser to proceed slowly and cautiously in this matter and avoid the introduction of a complete change without permitting an opportunity for experience to be gained and for mutual trust and respect to develop. Eventually, perhaps within a few years, open franchise and election at large or by wards may be the general rule, but we think it would be a mistake to impose it immediately and arbitrarily, more particularly since so few areas in our province have had an opportunity to operate post-elementary schools under an elected board.

40. Accordingly, we recommend

- (a) *that post-elementary school boards be elected bodies;*
- (b) *unless the system of general franchise specified in section (c) hereunder is adopted,*
 - (i) *that the respective numbers of public and separate school supporters comprising a post-elementary board be in proportion to the number of public and separate school supporters in the post-elementary unit of administration;*
 - (ii) *that the public and separate school supporters on the post-elementary board be nominated and elected by the public and separate school supporters of the post-elementary unit of administration, respectively;*
- (c) *when decided by affirmative vote on a plebiscite held at the request of a specified number of supporters, public or separate school as the case may be, of the minority group in the post-elementary unit of administration, and at which voting will be restricted to supporters belonging to such minority group, that the members of a post-elementary board be elected under a system of general franchise, either at large or by wards as determined locally by all qualified ratepayers of the post-elementary unit of administration;*

- (d) *that, after a period of five years has elapsed from the date of any previous plebiscite on the same question, on a like request, a further plebiscite be held, and that the method of election of members be in accordance with the result of the last plebiscite before the election.*

41. In regard to units of administration for separate school purposes and powers and duties of separate school boards, it must be remembered that separate schools, like public schools, are a part of the public system of education. Therefore, the conditions existing which favour larger units of administration and central schools are indistinguishable in the case of each; the restriction of the three-mile limit on separate school supporters should be removed; and the authority of public and separate school boards should be similar. We cannot accept the arguments to the contrary in the Majority Report as being either justifiable or valid, and accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that the boundaries of units of administration for public and separate school purposes be determined on the same basis;*
(b) *that the authority of public and separate school boards be coextensive within their respective units of administration.*

42. All members of the Commission have been in agreement upon the general principles which have determined the approach to problems of organization and administration of the schools of the public system of education. Uppermost has been the desire to avoid any division of the educational system into independent, isolated, or competing sections and to secure a unification in administration that will improve the educational facilities for all children in Ontario. The expression of these principles and of this desire may be found in those recommendations of the Majority Report which apply to the administration of public (including Protestant separate) and post-elementary schools. But any such application or expression is notably lacking in the recommendations of the majority with respect to Roman Catholic separate schools, which are to be separated from other component parts of the system and placed in strict isolation forever.

43. Disapproval of the stand taken by the majority on these matters is voiced in the Minority Report signed by the Commissioners Dr. R. J. Neelands, Dr. W. L. Whitelock, Mr. A. V. Chapman, and Dr. Sidney E. Smith. While we cannot accept all the proposals advanced by these four Commissioners, we are in sympathy with, and appreciate, the purpose they had in mind in submitting them. We are particularly impressed by their desire to secure unification of the administration of all elementary and post-elementary education and by the logical and practical method of achieving this which they have devised and presented. It will be recognized that the procedure that we propose be adopted to secure unification of administration of all forms of publicly supported education is in many respects similar to their proposals.

44. We believe that public school boards should be permitted to assign in whole or in part their duties, powers, and responsibilities to a post-elementary board of education, and that the same permission should be afforded to separate school boards. Accordingly we recommend

- (a) *that, in any larger unit of administration for separate school purposes, the separate school supporters be permitted, following a favourable vote on a plebiscite held for the purpose at the request of a specified number of such supporters, to assign in whole or in part the duties, powers, and responsibilities of the separate school board to the regional board;*¹
- (b) *that, in any larger unit of administration for public school purposes, the public school supporters be permitted, following a favourable vote on a plebiscite held for the purpose at the request of a specified number of such supporters, to assign in whole or in part the duties, powers, and responsibilities of the public school board to the regional board;*¹
- (c) *that, where the separate school supporters in any separate school area by plebiscite so decide, responsibility for the provision of educational facilities for the second stage of the educational system—ages 12 to 16—be delegated by the separate school board to the regional board;*¹
- (d) *that, where the public school supporters in any public school area by plebiscite so decide, responsibility for the provision of educational facilities for the second stage of the educational system—ages 12 to 16—be delegated by the public school board to the regional board;*¹
- (e) *that, in light of the long history of the teaching of the present first ten grades in many separate schools and to avoid drastic curtailment in the number of grades in which separate school pupils may receive instruction from teachers of their own faith, in any post-elementary unit of administration where responsibility for the second stage of education is voluntarily transferred by a separate school board or boards to the regional board and where the number of Roman Catholic children in the age group 12-16 years warrants a school for their requirements—without thereby making impossible the conduct of a school for the majority—the regional board designate one secondary school, or more if required, to be attended by Roman Catholic children only, and appoint to the staff of such school teachers of the same faith as the pupils;*¹
- (f) *that, where the public school and separate school supporters in a post-elementary unit of administration so decide, separately, by plebiscite, the elementary school boards in the post-elementary*

¹See paragraph 34.

*unit of administration be dissolved and their functions be discharged by the regional board.*¹

45. Since the new administrative arrangements are to be introduced at the wishes of the supporters concerned, provision should also be made to permit, where the plan introduced does not prove to be satisfactory, a return, after a reasonable period of time has elapsed and where it has been so decided by plebiscite, to the original form of administration. Similarly, when the vote on a plebiscite is not favourable to the introduction of a unified system of administration, provision should also be made for holding, after a reasonable period of time has elapsed, another plebiscite on the matter. Accordingly we recommend¹

that no decision by plebiscite determining the type of administrative organization preclude holding, under the same conditions, a similar plebiscite after an interval of at least five years has elapsed; and that the type of administrative organization obtaining at any time be in accordance with the decision recorded as a result of the last plebiscite held.

46. Since we have proposed that changes in administration be introduced on a permissive basis and that supporters of public and separate schools may decide locally to adopt them or not, it is possible that in any post-elementary unit of administration the extent of the jurisdiction of public and separate school boards may differ. Unless some adjustment be made, therefore, a manifestly unfair situation may arise wherein supporters of either public or separate schools may be taxed for the support of education at the second stage of the system—ages 12 to 16—by their own board and also by the regional board. To secure equity in the levies for the local support of education, we recommend

that, where in any post-elementary unit of administration the number of stages under the jurisdiction of public and separate school boards is not the same, an adjustment be made in the rates for educational purposes levied locally to compensate the elementary school board or boards providing educational facilities for the second stage.

Finance

47. We do not intend to outline in detail a suggested system of financing publicly supported schools in Ontario. However, in view of the proposals in the Majority Report, to which we cannot subscribe, we feel impelled to state what we deem to be the principles upon which the financing of education in this province should be based. Our study of the development and present position of the systems of financing education in Ontario, in other provinces of Canada, the United States, Great Britain, and other countries has revealed a change over the years in the financial responsibility of the central authorities. Originally, a central authority seems to have assumed little financial responsibility for education; generally speak-

¹See paragraph 34.

ing, grants were designed to stimulate the growth of certain types of education or to encourage the development of certain aspects of the educational programme. Today, almost without exception, the central authority has assumed responsibility for assisting local education authorities financially on behalf of their general programme of education. Further, in recognition of the unquestioned differences among local education authorities in ability to support an adequate programme of education, the central authority has endeavoured to distribute financial aid in such manner as to equalize as far as possible the local burden of financing education. A uniform local tax rate or "local load" is the ultimate goal of a central authority desiring equalization.

48. As we have seen, Ontario has adopted a system of grants to elementary school boards based on expenditure.¹ The obvious weaknesses of such a plan have led to the adoption in most countries of plans based on entirely different principles. As we interpret the bases of the many plans studied, the basic principles of a plan for the distribution of legislative grants to elementary schools in Ontario would be as follows:

- (a) The method of financing must be such as to ensure at least a minimum standard of education, common to both public and separate schools, for every pupil in the province;
- (b) (i) The total cost of providing the minimum programme should be shared by the local education authorities and the central authority;
(ii) The share of the total cost to be borne by all local education authorities should be raised by a uniform mill rate on the assessment, equalized on a provincial basis, of their supporters;
- (c) The share to be borne by the central authority should be distributed in such manner as to provide each local education authority with an amount equal to the difference between the approved cost of the minimum programme provided by it and the amount raised locally through the levy of the provincially uniform mill rate;
- (d) The provision of facilities and services by a local education authority in excess of the provincial minimum programme should be financed entirely through the levy of an additional mill rate upon the local ratepayers concerned;
- (e) The constitutional right of the minority as to the minimum share of government grants to which it is entitled must be observed.

49. Any attempt to appraise the comparative local cost of education and to devise means of bringing closer to a common factor the burden of this cost is made difficult, if not impossible, by the wide divergence in the bases of the assessment of property which exists under the prevailing system of assessment. It is obvious after even a cursory study that the correction of this condition is an essential first step in any effort to equalize local costs.

¹Grants to secondary schools are on a different basis.

We agree with the recommendation¹ contained in the Majority Report to the effect that the assessment of all property upon which school rates are levied be equalized on a provincial basis.

50. We do not propose to recommend any one plan for the division of the cost of education between the central and local education authorities: to devise a plan and to adapt it from time to time must be the responsibility of the government of the day. However, to illustrate one way in which it could be accomplished, we outline the principal features of one plan, the Mort plan² as it is called, which is in accordance with the principles we have set out:

- (a) that the central authority define a provincial minimum educational programme,³ common for public and separate schools;
- (b) that, to finance its share of the approved cost of the provincial minimum programme, each public and separate school board be required to levy a specified mill rate (to be uniform throughout the province) on the rateable property of its supporters;
- (c) that the general legislative grant to each public and separate school board be the difference between the product of this specified mill rate and the approved cost of the minimum programme provided by such board;
- (d) that expenditures of each public and separate school board in excess of the approved cost of the minimum programme provided by it be defrayed through the levy of an additional mill rate on the rateable property of its supporters;
- (e) that, where in any post-elementary unit of administration or part thereof the extent of the jurisdiction of public and separate school boards is not the same,⁴ appropriate adjustments be made in the specified mill rates and in the general legislative grants.

(signed) ED. F. HENDERSON
ARTHUR KELLY
JOSEPH M. PIGOTT
HENRI SAINT-JACQUES

¹See Chapter XXVIII of the Majority Report.

²See M. A. Cameron, *The Financing of Education in Ontario*, Bulletin 7, Department of Educational Research, University of Toronto.

³Defined in terms of curriculum and courses of study, qualifications and salaries of educational personnel, and school plant and equipment.

⁴See paragraph 46.

APPENDIX

A HISTORY OF THE ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOL CONTROVERSY

INTRODUCTION

1. Perhaps no issue in Ontario during the past hundred-odd years has been debated so continually as that of separate schools. It is, therefore, surprising that so little has been written about the history of a controversy which has often inflamed the ordinary citizen as much as it has interested the sober educator and worried the politically conscious legislator.

2. A perusal of the books on this subject is disappointing. The question has usually been treated by educators concerned almost wholly with the present-day situation, or by lawyers who deal with only its legal aspects. Those who have tackled the matter historically may be divided generally into the group which seeks a basis to damn "divisive, sectarian" schools, and the group which desires to defend and edify by eulogies of the pioneer Catholic clergy and laity.

3. There is one important work on education in this province which, while invaluable in itself, has tended, because of its exhaustive appearance, to discourage further investigation. At the turn of the twentieth century J. George Hodgins, aged historiographer for the Ontario Department of Education edited the twenty-eight volumed *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada*. (1)¹ As a former Deputy Minister of Education, a life-long associate of Rev. Egerton Ryerson, D.D., and the founder of Ontario's educational system, Hodgins was well suited for this heavy undertaking.

4. While the *Documentary History* is not always accurate, it is, on the whole, an important work of unusual comprehension. Yet Hodgins was so much the "Boswell" to Ryerson that it would be injudicious to allow Hodgins the last word. However evident this must be, nevertheless most histories of Ontario education not only fail to go "beyond Hodgins" (as some piously promise), but some authors give the impression of having neglected to read large portions of these depressing (in appearance) twenty-eight volumes.

5. Reference has been made to a considerable volume of original material touching upon the situation, to be found in the Ontario Archives and in the largely unexplored archives of the Roman Catholic Archdiocese of Toronto. Through additional light cast on the subject by these sources and by a re-analysis of what is already known, an endeavour has been made

¹Numbers in brackets refer to sources listed at the end of each section.

in the following pages to dispel some of the myths that have existed for years in the history of education as it relates to Roman Catholics and separate schools, and to show in their proper perspective some of the common misconceptions.

6. No apology is offered for the length of this historical survey. Further condensation was not possible except at the sacrifice of essential matter. As will be seen from the numerous references set out in the notes following each section, there is no dearth of material for the reader who wishes to pursue the study further. But for the benefit of those whose time may not permit the reading of the full text, the following paragraphs give in summarized form what the historical survey demonstrates:

- (1) Catholics in this province have from its earliest days held the same principles in regard to the education of their children. Expositions of their traditional position are to be found both here and elsewhere—the education of Catholic children in schools where a truly Catholic atmosphere pervades the whole programme. Ryerson's view—perpetuated by Hodgins—that about 1850 there was a change of attitude in the basis upon which separate schools were advocated is clearly erroneous.
- (2) Despite what may have been in Ryerson's mind concerning separate schools, Catholics never sought separate schools as a "protection from insult", but rather because they considered Catholic schools an essential concomitant of the practice of their religion.
- (3) The original provision for separate schools in the Act of 1841 was regarded not as a "special privilege", but as a right—a natural, moral, and historical right which became a legal right when incorporated into the Act.
- (4) The Catholic hierarchy of Upper Canada insisted at all times upon the importance of education for Catholic children and were most anxious for the advancement of elementary, secondary, and higher education amongst Catholics; even the earliest bishops maintained that this education must be Catholic.
- (5) The controversy which arose at the beginning of the latter half of the last century was not occasioned by novel educational views of a foreign incumbent, but by educational reforms on the part of the government which did not take into consideration the traditional views of Catholics on education.
- (6) Each request by Catholics for legislative action was not prompted by a wish to destroy the common school system, but was provoked by restrictions on the rights of separate school supporters to establish and support their own schools. Successive amendments which were promised as a corrective for these conditions at first brought peace, but when, in operation, it was found they produced little actual relief, disappointment followed by increased dissatisfaction brought about further requests for correction.

- (7) Events in the legislature of Canada antecedent to the Confederation Resolutions led to a hope that in Upper Canada amendments would be made in favour of separate schools similar to the amendments promised to the Protestant minority in Lower Canada. No action was taken in Ontario, although amendments in Quebec on the part of the Catholic majority have placed the schools of the Protestant minority there in a more favourable position than the separate schools in Ontario.
- (8) Catholics in Ontario do not now fully enjoy the rights to separate common schools which they held at Confederation. Partly owing to positive restrictions imposed on their scope and partly as a result of the absence of legislation to adapt to existing conditions the enactments relating to separate schools, the Catholic population of Ontario has suffered a serious loss in the educational rights earlier enjoyed. Mention of three matters will serve to illustrate:
- (a) the reduction in the educational programme permitted to be offered in separate schools;
 - (b) the retention of the three-mile requirement, limiting for separate schools the attendance area and the area for fiscal support while the corresponding public school areas have been markedly increased in size, has destroyed the equality of the two types of common schools;
 - (c) the lack of adequate machinery for an equitable division between public and separate schools of the ever increasing amount of school taxes paid by corporations and public utilities has denied to separate school supporters their right to full exemption from the payment of taxes for the support of public schools.

7. The following study, it is hoped, will cast further light upon an admittedly complex matter. It would not be fitting to fail to acknowledge the assistance of Miss Leslie Clark of the staff of the Archdiocesan Chancery Office in sorting out material and assisting the work in every possible way. The separate school problem is interwoven into the whole question of education and involves political and religious issues, in the study of which both social and economic history have a place. While new material has been discovered, it seems to make but more apparent the complexities of a comprehensive and objective treatment of the subject. Even on the more immediate level, much archival and newspaper material should be explored; it is to be hoped that the contents of the following pages will prove to be an incentive for the compilation of a more thorough history of separate schools in Ontario.

NOTES

1. J. G. Hodgins (ed.), *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada, from the Passing of the Constitutional Act of 1791 to the Close of Rev. Dr. Ryerson's Administration of the Education Department in 1876*, Toronto, 1894-1910 (28 vols.). Hodgins earlier wrote *The Legislation and History of Separate Schools in Upper Canada* (Toronto, 1897). However, most of the material in the latter book is contained in the *Documentary History*.

I. THE PIONEER ERA

1. Education in the early days of Upper Canada was connected intimately with the churches. This is not to be wondered at when it is remembered that such was the situation in Europe at that time, and that the modern conception of a state-provided, free education for all did not receive universal acceptance until the latter half of the last century.

2. The promotion of religion was an important aspect of what little interest the state did take in education at the opening of the nineteenth century. Thus, the much-referred-to "Portland despatch" of 1797, regarded as the "charter" of education in Upper Canada, stresses that the British government will approve grants "for promoting sound learning and a religious education." (1)

3. Apparently no action was taken to implement the instructions of the Colonial Office until 1807, when the Legislature of Upper Canada passed "An Act to establish Public Schools in each and every District of this Province." (Chapter VI, in the 47th Year of George III). By this Act, Upper Canada was to be divided into eight districts, one public school was to be established in each district, and the government was to pay to the school's teacher one hundred pounds annually. The schools were to be administered by trustees appointed by the government.

4. This Act founded the grammar schools of Upper Canada. It seems they were to approximate the English classical "public schools", which gave preparatory work for University entrance. While the Bill did not specifically mention religious education, clergymen were often appointed as trustees and the teachers were frequently clergymen. (2) Religious education was considered an important function of these schools, as Lieutenant-Governor Sir Francis Gore pointed out in his Speech from the Throne on the 20th of January, 1808: "Since the last session of this Legislature the necessary means have been taken on my part and on that of the Trustees appointed by me, for the establishing of Public Schools, institutions which, I trust, will be the means not only of communicating useful knowledge to the youth of this Province, but also of instilling into their minds principles of Religion and Loyalty." (3)

5. These public schools were regarded by many as classical schools confined mostly to the wealthy and there was, consequently, a demand for common elementary schools to give a general education to the youth of the province. (4) Thereupon, in 1816, the government approved an Act "granting to His Majesty a sum of money, to be applied to the use of Common Schools throughout this Province . . ." (Chapter XXXVI, 56th Year of George III). A sum of £6,000 was to be divided annually among the school districts to establish Common Schools. Public meetings were to appoint trustees who would hire teachers and regulate schools, subject to some supervision from the District Boards of Education. The District Boards of Education were to be appointed by the government. Before a teacher could be paid his

portion of the grant, the trustees had to certify that at least 20 scholars had been "educated in the said school."

6. Like its predecessor, this Act did not mention religious instruction. However, on the 6th of February, 1816, the Legislative Council referred to religious education in replying to the Lieutenant-Governor's Speech from the Throne: ". . . the dissemination of letters is of the first importance to every class in promoting morality and religion, in ameliorating the condition of mankind, and in benefiting prosperity . . ." (5)

7. That religion was taught in both common and grammar schools is evident. This may be seen, for example, in the rules for the government of common schools in the Niagara District, prescribed by the Niagara District Board of Education. These call for prayers, religious instructions, and scripture readings. The instructions, in requiring the use of specified religious books, include the note: "These books are confined to no religious denomination, and do not prevent the Master from teaching such catechism as the parents of the children may adopt." (6) An example of the teaching of religion in grammar schools is the order of examination for the school of the Home District at York, 7th August, 1816. This order demonstrates that classes were held which gave religious teaching. (7)

8. Serious complaints of the poverty and paucity of the schools in Upper Canada were common throughout the first half of the nineteenth century. Concern was felt that such inadequate support for schools had an adverse effect on the propagation of religious principles. In his Speech from the Throne on the 21st of February, 1820, the Lieutenant-Governor, Sir Peregrine Maitland, declared that "Provision for religious instruction and the diffusion of Education are becoming daily more important in this Province." (8) To this the House of Assembly, on the 23rd of February, replied:

We shall direct our attention to such laws as are about to expire, and give to the revision of the Common School Act that due consideration which its importance demands.

We are aware that ignorance and licentiousness are at variance with the true principles of civil policy and rational freedom, and, in our deliberations on this important subject, it shall be our study to keep in view the improvement of the moral and religious habits of the rising generation. (9)

9. It was the policy of the government in the early 1820's to support the hand of the Church of England in educational matters. While the dispute that raged over this subject usually took as its leading issue the control of King's College, the question ranged from university to elementary school level. For one thing, the executive government established Church of England "national schools" without getting Legislative Assembly approval. (10) The policy of these "national schools" may be summarized from the 1820-21 report of Joseph Spragg, master of the Central School of York:

To train up, not only those who are destined for the higher departments of life, but also the rising generation in general, to proper and regular habits of application and industry combined with sound moral and religious notions, must

be surely desirable, as being highly calculated both for the individual and general good.(11)

10. Leading the Church of England in its insistence on its educational prerogatives was Archdeacon John Strachan, later the first Bishop of Toronto. He declared, in 1826, that "it is of the greatest importance that the education of the colony should be conducted by the clergy."(12) It was necessary, Strachan thought, to support the Church of England as a bulwark against "sectaries" and the "Romish church."(13)

11. Naturally, there was widespread opposition to this view, and the demand for the termination of what was considered the Church of England's monopoly in education led some to wish for a purely secular system of education, while others wanted all denominations to share the responsibility of giving religious training. In support of the former idea, a meeting of the "friends of religious liberty" held at York on the 10th of December, 1830, under the chairmanship of Robert Baldwin, drew up the following petition:

Your Petitioners feel persuaded that nothing would contribute more to the tranquillity of Upper Canada . . . than an equality of privileges and immunities among all Christian denominations, and a system of education under the control of the Provincial Legislature, with Schools and Colleges in which there should be no preference of sectarian tenets, or interests, and whose portals and honours would be equally accessible to meritorious industry of every religious creed.(14)

In 1829 a House of Assembly select committee on education had attacked the District Grammar Schools as favouring the Church of England in the religion taught, and charged that the trustees were generally members of that church.(15) There is evidence, however, that other denominations controlled some of the grammar schools.(16)

12. It was not so much that there was objection to religion in the schools; the annoyance was the contention that the Church of England was to be regarded as the sole established church in Upper Canada. Typical of the protestations of the dissenting groups is this petition of the Presbyterians in 1830, which, interestingly enough, calls for separate Presbyterian schools:

Although, for many years, a liberal provision has been made for the education of the youth in this Province, the benevolent designs of the Legislature have failed in effecting the object they had in view.

The appointment of Trustees from one communion alone has occasioned a jealousy in the minds of the people and destroyed that confidence which should ever be placed in the public institutions of our country.

It might have been expected that, as all classes of the community and all denominations of Christians have to bear the expenses of these institutions, the interests of all would have been consulted, and that persons of intelligence and education of all denominations would have been allowed to participate in their superintendence.

Your Petitioners, with deep regret, find that this is not the case; and that the Trustees of these institutions, which ought to be impartially managed for the benefit of all, have been almost exclusively appointed from one denomination of Christians, and, consequently, your Petitioners and their congregations, as well as others in similar circumstances, have been deprived of that benefit which they had a right to expect would have arisen from them.

Your Petitioners, having numerous and large congregations under their superintendence, in which there are thousands of young people growing up in want of education, feel anxious that they should be provided with the means of instruction which would render them intelligent Christians, and useful members of society.

As these institutions are now managed your Petitioners have no alternative left but to apply to your Honourable House to afford them provision for other Schools to be placed under their superintendence, since they are not permitted to have any share in the appointment of Teachers or in the management of the District (Grammar) Schools now in existence. (17)

13. After this fashion the debate continued. The political implications of this struggle, with concomitant constitutional changes and the ceaseless battle to improve the educational system in spite of religious differences, a largely agrarian populace, and an apathetic government, are all beyond the scope of this study, which must restrict itself largely to the ideas of religious education that were expounded. Relevant to our purpose, therefore, is the report which Dr. Charles Duncombe submitted to the House of Assembly in February, 1836. Dr. Duncombe, a Reformer who was later to take part in the Mackenzie rebellion, Dr. T. D. Morrison, and Dr. William Bruce had been appointed by the House of Assembly in April, 1835, to investigate the educational system in the United States, note its success and failures, and give advice to Upper Canada. In his report, Dr. Duncombe maintained that nothing was more important in education than that religion should have its place:

But the most important deficiency, and one which is equally felt by both sexes, is the want of a system of moral and religious education at school which shall have a decided influence in forming the character, and regulating the principles and conduct of future life. (18)

There was no reason why religion should not be taught in the schools, Dr. Duncombe proceeded. There was no difference in the religious opinions of the Christian bodies in Upper Canada that was so essential as to prevent common religious and moral instruction, he thought:

All agree that the Bible is the true standard of right and wrong, and the only rule of faith and practice. All agree that the evidences of its divine authority should be understood, and that its contents should be studied. (19)

14. While Dr. Duncombe believed that a common religion could be taught in the schools, he felt religious principles to be so important that separate religious schools should be established if any denomination disagreed with his plan. The evil of a purely secular education, he said, would be ten times graver than the possible evils of separate schools: "Our schools must have these [i.e. religious] influences; but whether it shall be by the united or by the separate action of religious sects is a matter of secondary consequence." (20)

15. In spite of the interest in education shown through the Duncombe report, Lord Durham three years later could paint a gloomy picture of the state of education in Upper Canada:

A very considerable portion of the Province has neither roads, post-office,

mills, schools, nor churches. The people may raise enough for their own subsistence, and may even have a rude and comfortless plenty, but they can seldom acquire wealth; nor can even wealthy land-owners prevent their children from growing up ignorant and boorish, and from occupying a far lower mental, moral, and social position than they themselves fill . . . There is no adequate provision of local assessment to improve the means of communication . . . Of the lands which were originally appropriated for the support of schools throughout the country, by far the most valuable portion has been diverted to the endowment of the University, from which those only derive any benefit who reside in Toronto, or those who, having a large assured income, are enabled to maintain their children in that town at an expense which has been estimated at £50 per annum for each child. Even in the most thickly populated districts there are but few schools, and those of a very inferior character; while the more remote settlements are almost entirely without any. (21)

16. The authorities in Upper Canada recognized this evil. Governor-General Sir George Arthur in his Speech from the Throne on February 27th, 1839, urged the importance of "a system of sound and Religious Instruction for the rising generation," (22) and the House of Assembly in its answer declared "we cordially agree." (23) The interest of the government was backed by petitioning inhabitants, as when certain residents of the Gore district attacked the common schools as inefficient. The education of youth, they demanded, must be "properly directed in the acquisition of knowledge, morality, religion, literature and science." (24)

17. The sorry educational scene in Upper Canada was demonstrated forcibly by the report of a governmental commission on education in 1839. It was this report, together with the Duncombe advice, which was to give impetus to the important educational Acts of the 1840's. The Commission related that in 1838 but one in eighteen was receiving education from public funds. (25) To improve this condition, the Commission recommended higher pay for teachers and advised an institution for their training. (26) Important for the future was its further suggestion that a uniform system of instruction and textbooks be adopted. (27)

18. The part these recommendations played in later legislation is manifest. Nor should it be forgotten that the Commission stressed religious instruction as a part of its recommendations. The Hon. Peter Boyle de Blacquièrre, of Woodstock, had told the Commission in a letter that he was "satisfied that no dependence can be placed on any system of Education which shall not, in all its details, and modifications, be essentially based on religion." (28) Similarly Rev. Robert Murray, of Oakville,¹ wrote to the Commission advising that:

As morality and religion are the foundation and stability of all good Governments, and as these are taught in their purity in the Word of God, a portion of the Scriptures should be read in these Schools, at least one Chapter every day; the reading to be consecutive through the whole Inspired Volume. (29)

¹Murray was Superintendent of Education in Upper Canada during the years 1842-44.

19. Such advice did not go unheeded. In its suggestions for common school study, the Commission declared:

The subjects of instruction should be, in addition to the ordinary branches of an English education, (Spelling, Reading and Writing,) the Holy Scriptures, Geography, History, Arithmetic, Mensuration and Book-keeping, and, in the Girl's School, Sewing and Knitting. (30)

Therefore, both in the Duncombe report of 1836 and the Commission on Education report of 1839, religion was recognized as playing an essential role in education.

20. Just as leading Protestants stressed religious education, Roman Catholics also wished to control the education of their youth so that they might be instructed in their own faith.

21. Lord Durham reported in 1839 that Roman Catholics formed at least a fifth of the population of Upper Canada. He paid tribute to their loyalty which he said was remarkable in spite of the neglect of the government. (31) Because of this loyalty, he added, the government should heed the wishes of this body. Speaking of the Catholic clergy in Lower Canada, Durham stated:

Intimately acquainted with the wants and characters of their neighbours, they have been the promoters and dispensers of charity, and the effectual guardians of the morals of the people; and in the general absence of any permanent institutions of civil government, the Catholic church has presented almost the only semblance of stability and organization, and furnished the only effectual support for civilization and order. (32)

Referring to the clergy and the Irish immigrants of the two Canadas, Durham observed:

The endowments of the Catholic church, and the services of its numerous and zealous parochial clergy,^[1] have been of the greatest benefit to the large body of Catholic emigrants from Ireland, who have relied much on the charitable as well as the religious aid which they have received from the priesthood. The priests have an almost unlimited influence over the lower classes of Irish; and this influence is said to have been very vigorously exerted last winter, when it was much needed, to secure the loyalty of a portion of the Irish during the troubles. The general loyalty exhibited by the Irish settlers in the Canadas, during the last winter, and the importance of maintaining it unimpaired in future times of difficulty, render it of the utmost moment that the feelings and interests of the Catholic clergy and population should invariably meet with due consideration from the government. (33)

22. In Lower Canada, the Catholic clergy have provided whatever education the French and Irish of that province possessed, Lord Durham

¹Whatever may have been the case in Lower Canada, a perusal of the correspondence of Bishops Macdonell and Power shows that the Roman Catholic Clergy in Upper Canada were far from "numerous" and, while all had to undergo hardship and many were exemplary, there were some who failed to match the shortage of their numbers with compensating zeal, and the tasks of the Bishops were heartbreaking. Nor, at the same time, does the influence of clergy upon laity appear to have been extensive.

pointed out. He thought the Catholic clergy would be unwilling to lose their position in the educational field and noted that the clergy of some other denominations felt the same way in respect to the education of their own flocks. In his desire to end any possible source of discord, Durham regretted any "narrow" and "sectarian" system of education, and felt that the laity of lower Canada would generally support a "liberal and general system of public education." (34)

23. Agitation in Upper Canada for Catholic schools began early in the nineteenth century, shortly after the arrival of a considerable body of Catholic immigrants. The first Roman Catholic Bishop in Upper Canada was the Right Rev. Alexander Macdonell, Bishop of Regiopolis. In 1794 Macdonell, a Scottish priest, was instrumental in forming a regiment from the Catholic Highlanders who had moved to the Glasgow district for economic reasons. This regiment was formed to defend the British government during the disturbances of the period of the French Revolution.

24. In 1804, on the disbandment of the "Glengarry Regiment", Macdonell urged the soldiers to emigrate to Upper Canada rather than to the United States. He demonstrated his remarkable loyalty again during the war of 1812 when he caused the formation of a second Glengarry Regiment and he himself served in the field.¹ (35)

25. The first record we have of Macdonell's appeal for educational aid is a request for governmental assistance in March, 1815, to Lord Drummond, President of the Executive Council, who passed along his recommendation to Lord Bathurst, Colonial Secretary. (37) Apparently no action was taken at the time, and, in 1817, Macdonell wrote directly to Lord Bathurst. Macdonell specified he wanted Catholic schools for the Catholic pioneers:

To administer to the spiritual want of all these settlers, and to afford the necessary instructions to their youth would require, at least, six Clergymen, and eight or ten School Masters, who ought to be selected from their own countrymen professing the same Religion, and speaking the same, (Gaelic,) language with themselves.

Of all the methods that can be devised to preserve to the children the loyal principles of their fathers, it is obvious that none can prove so effectual as implanting in their minds these principles, and conveying moral and religious instructions to them at an early age, in the emphatic language of their ancestors . . . (38)

26. Besides wishing to establish common schools, Macdonell wished to erect a higher school on the grammar school level "capable of educating

¹Macdonell was not alone among the Catholic clergy remarkable for loyalty, as the Durham Report shows. On the 27th of September, 1841, Rev. Michael Power, (later first Bishop of Toronto), when Vicar General to the Bishop of Montreal, wrote to Lord Stanley, Secretary for the Colonies, asking the government's approval of the plans to divide Upper Canada into two dioceses and to erect an ecclesiastical province in British North America. Power promised that: "They would warn their flocks as heretofore, but with much greater authority against the principles of disaffected men and inculcate with less apprehension and in more forcible terms submission to the laws, loyalty to her Majesty, and above all unbounded attachment to the Mother Country." (36)

gentlemen's sons upon a more liberal and extensive plan than what would be necessary for the lower class of settlers." It seems he did not regard the public grammar schools, established under the 1807 Act, as suitable for Catholics, for he suggested that the proposed Catholic school could receive "the same allowance as . . . the Protestant District Grammar Schools receive from the Provincial Treasury." (39)

27. Catholic schools were required for girls as well as boys, Macdonell believed. He was alarmed to think that most of the boarding schools were at present conducted by American teachers who were instilling principles adverse to the British constitution:

To arrest the rapid progress of this growing evil, and to rescue the minds of [Roman] Catholic children, at least, from the insidious acts of those active agents of our enemies, no plan could promise more certain success than the encouraging of a few English Nuns, or Religious Women, capable of imparting proper education and the necessary accomplishments to Young Ladies to go from this country to settle in Upper Canada . . . (40)

28. Lord Bathurst granted a degree of support for educational purposes, and Macdonell recruited teachers from Scotland. Local officials apparently deadlocked payment, however, and he was able to collect but £900 from 1817 until 1824. In that year the bishop claimed, and was awarded, arrears of £3,400. (41) On the 16th of December, 1826, Macdonell told Bishop Panet of Quebec that: "I have also the pleasure to inform your Lordship that I have obtained a grant from the government of £750 per annum for my priests and schoolmasters independent of my salary of £400 a year sterling." (42)

29. In the same letter, Macdonell speaks of a more comprehensive scheme of Catholic education, which seemingly never materialized:

It gives me the most sincere and heartfelt pleasure to understand that an arrangement is now in progress to extend the benefits of the Royal Institute for education to the Catholic population of this Province and that there is to be a separate Roman Catholic committee for the exclusive superintendence of Catholic schools now or hereafter to be established and that the committee is to consist of both laymen and ecclesiastics. (43)

30. Finding that he was unable to extend educational facilities as he wished, Macdonell proposed, in 1827, that the government assign lands for the endowment of Catholic schools in Canada. He was refused, but, at the same time, the government granted him permission to apply part of his state appropriation for priests to the support of teachers. (44) This was done. (45)

31. Macdonell continued to demand assistance for Catholic education until his death in 1840. In 1829 a deed for land in York for a Catholic school was obtained. Apparently, the Lieutenant-Governor, Sir John Colborne, supported this move, but it aroused some local opposition. (46) The exact number of Catholic schools at this time is not known, but in view of the sparse settlements, the shortage of clergy, and the poverty of the

Catholics, there were probably but few. Macdonell was not fighting a lone battle, however, for in 1831 the priest and laity of Belleville petitioned for a grant of land in Murray Township for a school and church that had already been built.(47) Apparently the laity supported the clergy in asking for educational support, as was instanced by the petition of William Bergin and others in Toronto on February 17th, 1835.(48)

32. In view of the fact that the Catholic advocacy of separate education was said to have commenced only in 1850 with the introduction of the "foreign" notions of Rev. Armand Francis de Charbonnel, second Bishop of Toronto, it is interesting to notice Bishop Macdonell's attitude. His claims were not unlike those of Charbonnel in 1850, or of the Ontario Catholic Education Association in 1950. Catholic schools were to keep pace with the Catholic population, he intimated in March, 1833, in a letter to Lord Goderich, Colonial Secretary of State:

It is with infinite pleasure I view the prosperity and general situation of His Majesty's Catholic subjects in this Province under the administration of his present Excellency Sir John Colborne . . . The maintenance of their clergy and the education of their children was what gave them (Catholics) great concern, but seeing the attention of the Government at length turned to those important subjects they anticipate the most beneficial results . . . Should your Lordship think proper to order an allotment of one or two hundred acres of land to be given for the use of clergymen and schoolmasters in every place where there is a church or established mission, it might in time be of great benefit for the support of both church and school.(49)

33. In the same year, Macdonell in a circular letter expressed the hope that the House of Assembly would distribute educational funds "amongst the different denominations of Christians in this province according to their numerical strength."(50) The Bishop was to be disappointed, for we find him in a public address in June, 1836, complaining that the "radicals" in the House of Assembly had discontinued payment of the money formerly granted by the government for the "building and repairing Catholic churches, supporting Catholic schools, and maintaining Catholic clergy."(51)

34. As late as 1838, Bishop Macdonell objected to lack of provision for Catholic schools for the increasing Catholic population. He urged support for both grammar and common schools. In a letter to the Earl of Durham, Lord High Commissioner to Canada, Macdonell protested that:

The Irish Emigrants, unable to build places of Worship for themselves, or educate their children, as well as the Scots Highlanders, feel greatly disappointed . . . at not receiving any assistance from the government for the education of their children, although the Methodists obtained this very year a grant of four thousand, one hundred pounds, (£4,100) towards their Seminary at Cobourg. There are abundant funds for education in the Province, if the school lands were disposed of, and the proceeds applied to the support of District (Grammar) and Common Schools. (52)

35. Far from upholding a non-religious system of common education, the first Bishop in Upper Canada assumed that Catholics were to be given a Catholic education on all levels. While even in his period there were those who opposed public aid for denominational education, nevertheless the principle of religious education (denominational or "common") was accepted by the majority of the Protestant leaders. It was not until 1841, however, that separate schools, as such, were recognized by legislation, and while the immediate occasion of this principle was the pressure of Protestant bodies (mostly Presbyterian), yet there is no evidence that the Catholic body would have accepted a "common" system of education that did not include within it a system of Catholic schools for Catholic children.

NOTES

1. The Duke of Portland, Colonial Minister, to the Hon. Peter Russell, President of the Upper Canada Executive Council, 4th November, 1797: "[His Majesty] being always ready to shew his parental regard for the welfare of his subjects in the furtherance of so important an object as the instruction of youth, and to assist and encourage the exertions of his Province in laying the foundations for promoting sound learning and a religious education, has condescended to express his most gracious intention to comply with the wishes of the Legislature of his Province of Upper Canada in such a manner as shall be judged to be most effectual—

"First by the establishment of free grammar [classical] schools in those districts in which they are called for; and

"Secondly, in due course of time by establishing other seminaries of a larger and more comprehensive nature, for the promotion of religious and moral learning, and the study of the Arts and Sciences." (Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. I, p. 17).

2. *Ibid.*, pp. 30, 41, 83.

3. *Ibid.*, p. 62.

4. *Ibid.*, pp. 76 and 77, see petitions from the Newcastle district in 1811, and from the Midland district in 1812.

5. *Ibid.*, p. 94.

6. *Ibid.*, Vol. III, p. 141. See also *ibid.*, Vol. I, p. 182, in respect of the Common School at York.

7. *Ibid.*, Vol. I, p. 108.

8. *Ibid.*, p. 169.

9. *Ibid.*

10. *Ibid.*, p. 179.

11. *Ibid.*, p. 177.

12. *Ibid.*, p. 213.

13. *Ibid.*, pp. 213, 219.

14. *Ibid.*, pp. 318, 319.

15. *Ibid.*, pp. 269-272.

16. See evidence of George Ryerson, given on 18th June, 1828, to the Select Committee of the British House of Commons relating to the Charter of King's College (Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. I, p. 255):

"Q. What schools are there connected with the Church of England establishment?

- A. The District (Grammar) Schools, of which the Rev. Dr. Thomas Phillips is the teacher at York; and a Central School on the National system at York also.
- Q. Are there any District Schools for other denominations?
- A. There are two large schools that consist of Methodists, Presbyterians, and others."

17. Petition of the United Presbytery of Upper Canada to the Upper Canada Legislature, Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. I, p. 298. Lord Durham presents the situation in this way:

"The Church of England in Upper Canada, by numbering in its ranks all those who belong to no other sect, represents itself as being more numerous than any single denomination of Christians in the country. Even admitting, however, the justice of the principle upon which this enumeration proceeds, and giving that Church credit for all that it thus claims, its number could not amount to one-third, probably not a fourth of the population. It is not, therefore, to be expected that the other sects, three at least of whom, the Methodists, the Presbyterians, and the Catholics, claim to be individually more numerous than the Church of England, should acquiesce quietly in the supremacy thus given to it. And it is equally natural that the English Dissenters, and Irish Catholics, remembering the position which they have occupied at home, and the long and painful struggle through which alone they have obtained the imperfect equality they now possess, should refuse to acquiesce for themselves in the creation of a similar establishment in their own country, and thus to bequeath to their children a strife as arduous and embittered as that from which they have so recently and imperfectly escaped."—*The Report of the Earl of Durham* (31 January, 1839), London, 1902, p. 126.

18. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. II, p. 301.

19. *Ibid.*, p. 303.

20. *Ibid.* Specifically, Dr. Duncombe asserted:

"But if any religious sect attach such importance to their own peculiarities as to fear the influence of religious instruction exerted by those who differ from them on these points, they could institute schools taught by persons of their own sect; and though they might involve some dangers and some evils, yet there would be the counterbalancing good which is often found to be the result of sectarianism, more would be accomplished in a good cause than would have been had no such jealousy existed.

"One thing is certain, if religious influences are banished from our provincial system of education, every denomination will be injured in its most vital interests. For one who would be proselyted by a sectarian Teacher, ten would be ruined by the vice and irreligion consequent on the subject of moral and religious influences."

21. *The Report of the Earl of Durham*, pp. 132, 133.

22. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. III, p. 144.

23. *Ibid.*, p. 145.

24. *Ibid.*, p. 164.

25. *Ibid.*, p. 245: "From these Reports, however, it appears that the number of pupils in thirteen District (Grammar) Schools is little more than three hundred; that the number of Common Schools may be assumed to be more than eight hundred, and that the number of children receiving instruction in them, may be estimated at about twenty-four thousand, (24,000) taking the population of Upper Canada to be four hundred and fifty thousand, (450,000) the average of Education by public funds is about one in eighteen."

26. *Ibid.*, pp. 248, 249.

27. *Ibid.*, p. 249: "Your Committee are naturally led to observe next, the evils arising from the want of an uniform system of instruction. They consider the introduction of uniformity, (both as to system adopted, and text books used,) to be of the utmost importance."

28. *Ibid.*, p. 276.

29. *Ibid.*, p. 274.

30. *Ibid.*, p. 250.

31. *The Report of the Earl of Durham*, p. 129:

"The Catholics constitute at least a fifth of the whole population of Upper Canada. Their loyalty was most generally and unequivocally exhibited at the late outbreak. Nevertheless, it is said that they are wholly excluded from all share in the government of the country and the patronage at its disposal . . .

"The Irish Catholics complain very loudly and justly of the existence of Orangeism in this Colony. They are justly indignant that, in a Province which their loyalty and bravery have materially contributed to save, their feelings are outraged by the symbols and processions of this association."

32. *Ibid.*, pp. 97, 98.

33. *Ibid.*, p. 99.

34. *Ibid.*, pp. 95, 96.

35. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. V, pp. 309, 310. See also Hugh Joseph Somers, *The Life and Times of the Hon. and Rt. Rev. Alexander Macdonell, D.D., First Bishop of Upper Canada*, Washington, D.C., 1931.

36. *Power Papers*, Toronto Roman Catholic Archdiocesan Archives.

37. Somers, *op. cit.*, p. 53.

38. Macdonell to Bathurst, January 10, 1817, Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. V, p. 307.

39. *Ibid.*

40. *Ibid.*, p. 308.

41. Somers, *op. cit.*, pp. 56-60.

42. *Macdonell Papers*, Archives of Ontario, Vol. II, pp. 224, 245. Also appears in Somers, *op. cit.*, Appendix 11.

43. *Ibid.*

44. Major G. Hillier to Macdonell November 19, 1827, *Macdonell Papers*, Vol. III, p. 344.

45. See evidence of Rev. Angus McDonell, Curé of Sandwich, to the House of Assembly Select Committee on Grievances, 1835, Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. II, p. 190. See also p. 141, footnote, and pp. 284-286. Also letter from Rev. W. J. O'Grady, York, to Macdonell, July 6, 1829, in *O'Grady Papers*, Toronto Archdiocesan Archives.

46. Rev. W. J. O'Grady to Macdonell, June 16, 1829, and September 28, 1829, *O'Grady Papers*.

47. Memorial of Vicar-General Rev. W. J. O'Grady to Sir John Colborne, January 9, 1831, *O'Grady Papers*.

48. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. II, p. 163.

49. *Macdonell Papers*, Vol. VIII, pp. 1195, 1196.

50. *Ibid.*, Vol. IX, p. 1308.

51. The Address of Bishop Macdonell to the Catholic and Protestant Freeholders of the Counties of Stormont and Glengarry, Kingston, June 15, 1836, in *A Retrospect* (anon.), n.p., n.d., p. 23.

52. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. III, p. 146, footnote.

II. BISHOP POWER AND CATHOLIC EDUCATION

1. When it is remembered that Hodgins' own Documentary History is a major source for establishing that separate schools were considered prior to 1840, his comment to the contrary in volume ten of this work is surprising. "It is a matter of fact," Hodgins quite erroneously asserts, "that up to 1841, no Religious Body, or other person, mooted, much less advocated, the question of the necessity, or desirability, of separate schools as part of a General System of Education." (1)

2. According to Hodgins, the separate school principle was admitted into legislation in 1841 "due to peculiar circumstances, and as the result of a dead-lock in the Legislature, and of an effort, in consequence thereof, at compromise and conciliation, under strong pressure from various opposing influences." (2) As will be recalled, by 1841 the two Canadas were united under a legislative union. Any general educational measure would have to receive the approval of Lower Canadian Catholics as well as Upper Canadian Protestants.

3. This was a most important feature in Canadian educational history. If it is to be wondered why American Catholics were unsuccessful in their struggle to direct their taxes to their own schools while separate schools were recognized in Canada, the legislative union provides the answer. Any government to survive had to pay respect to the wishes of the Protestant minority in Lower Canada and to the Catholic minority in Upper Canada; for the minority in one province could always combine with the majority in the other.

4. Protestants and Catholics alike were keenly interested when it was learned that the Legislature in 1841 was to be presented with a measure for general education. As early as July 13th, 1841, the Hon. John Hamilton presented a petition to the Legislative Council from the ministers and elders of the Presbyterian Church of Canada. The petition prayed "that provision be made for the use of the Holy Scriptures in all the schools of the Province admitted to a participation of any grant of public money." (3) A number of petitions similar in nature were presented to both the Legislative Assembly and the Legislative Council. (4)

5. On August 20th, 1841, the Legislative Assembly heard a petition from Rt. Rev. John Strachan, Church of England Bishop of Toronto, and his clergy, requesting that "the Education of the children of their own church may be entrusted to their own Pastors; and that an annual grant from the assessments may be awarded for their instruction." (5) This was but the beginning of Bishop Strachan's aggressive struggle for Church of England separate schools.

6. Roman Catholic authorities in Upper and Lower Canada also made known that they wished the rights of Catholics to be protected in any proposed measure. The Right Rev. Remegius Gaulin, Bishop of Kingston, and the Rev. A. Mauseau and H. Hudon, Administrators of the Montreal diocese,

petitioned that the proposed Bill was objectionable¹ and asked that it not become law "until the opinion of Catholics, and other Religious Denominations be known." (6) The Bishop of Quebec had presented a similar petition, which asked that any common school bill be "based on the principles of justice" and that it should "contain no enactment which can prejudice the interests of Her Majesty's Roman Catholic subjects." (7)

7. The government had no intention of offending the religious feelings of any group. Hon. C. D. Day, Solicitor General, explained that the government wished to establish a system of common schools "which should extend to the whole Province, and embrace the entire population." (8) The importance of this new scheme for future generations was appreciated, and Day therefore urged that "to secure success it was necessary that the system introduced should be ample, effective and popular; and that it should not interfere with the prejudices of those for whose benefit it was intended." (9)

8. Members of the Legislature agreed that rights of conscience should be respected. John Neilson, of Quebec, looked forward to an organized system of education "by which the people might be fully enabled to educate their children according to their wishes and feelings; and above all, their religious opinions should not be interfered with." (10)

9. All Upper Canada was pleased with a measure to improve the education of the country, Captain Elmes Steele, of Simcoe, affirmed. Captain Steele wanted the House to produce "as perfect a System of Education as possible" and hoped the Bill would make provision "that each denomination of Christians may educate their children according to the principles of their own faith." (11)

10. Legislators should ensure that no educational measure should establish a "government monopoly" which would disregard the religious rights of any section of the community, D. B. Viger, of Richelieu (Lower Canada) declared. ". . . such things", he felt, "were destructive to the peace of society". The educational monopolies of the governments of Germany and France "had been attended with the greatest abuses. We of Lower Canada wish it to be particularly understood that all classes should be equal in the eye of the law, as regards civil and religious liberty." (12)

11. Benjamin Holmes, of Montreal, attacked the petitions which insisted on the use of the Bible as a textbook. "Every man is answerable for his religious belief to his own conscience and to his God," Holmes maintained, "and every man should be at liberty to instruct his children in that faith which his conscience dictates." (13)

12. It was the Hon. William Morris in the Legislative Council who gave the clearest go-ahead signal to the principle of separate schools. Morris

¹The original Bill did not provide for separate schools. A provision for these schools was later admitted into the Bill, on the recommendation of a Select Committee of the Legislature.

was a prominent Presbyterian layman, and was Chairman of the Board of Trustees of Queen's College. As Chairman of the Select Committee on Education, he told the Legislative Council, on August 24th, that Protestants and Catholics "must part in peace" and educate their children separately. He is quoted as saying:

With respect to the difficulty which is presented to our view by the Petitions which daily come before the House, from Roman Catholic and Protestant bodies, I would just observe, that, if the use, by Protestants, of the Holy Scriptures in their schools, is so objectionable to our fellow-subjects of that other faith, the children of both religious persuasions must be educated apart; for Protestants never can yield to that point, and, therefore, if it is insisted upon that the Scriptures shall not be a classbook in schools, we must part in peace, and conduct the education of the respective bodies according to our sense of what is right. (14)

13. A similar position was taken by the Hon. Peter B. de Blacquière, of Woodstock, who felt it was "quite hopeless" to educate Protestants and Catholics together, although Protestants of different denominations could be educated as a body. He believed that while denominational education for the various religious groups would be tenable in the cities and towns, yet the rural districts were settled too sparsely to allow this in the case of Protestants. Nevertheless, in the case of Catholics they must be educated apart from the Protestants. (15)

14. If the development of an educational system were to be free from religious acrimony, then the Catholic and Protestant bodies must each be granted its demands. This was the view of the legislators who passed the 1841 Act which became the basis of the common school system. While the demand by Protestants for the Bible in schools may have been the immediate occasion of the separate school provisions, (16) nevertheless, the petitions from the Catholic hierarchy in 1841, the past interest in education on the part of the clergy in both Upper and Lower Canada, the history of the Catholic Church in every country in the world, and the later agitations, all indicate that the Catholic leaders would have advocated separate schools even had the Protestants remained silent in the matter of Biblical instruction.

15. The 1841 educational Act (4 & 5 Victoria, Chapter 18) established separate schools as a part of the common school system. Section XI provided that:

. . . whenever any number of the Inhabitants of any Township or Parish professing a religious faith different from that of the majority of the Inhabitants of such Township or Parish, it shall be lawful for the Inhabitants so dissenting, collectively, to signify such dissent in writing to the Clerk of the District Council, with the name or names of one or more persons elected by them as their Trustee or Trustees, for the purposes of this Act; and the said District Clerk shall forthwith furnish a certified copy thereof to the District Treasurer; and it shall be lawful for such dissenting Inhabitants, by and through such Trustee or Trustees, who for that purpose shall hold and exercise all the rights, powers and authorities, and be subject to the obligations and liabilities, hereinbefore assigned to

and imposed upon the Common School Commissioners, to establish and maintain one or more Common Schools in the manner, and subject to the visitation, conditions, rules and obligations, in this Act provided with reference to other Common Schools, and to receive from the District Treasurer their due proportion, according to their number, of the monies appropriated by Law, and raised by assessment for the support of Common Schools, in the School District or Districts in which the said Inhabitants reside, in the same manner as if the Common Schools so to be established and maintained under such Trustee or Trustees, were established and maintained under the said Common School Commissioners, such monies to be paid by the District Treasurer upon the warrant of the said Trustee or Trustees.

There was no indication either in the 1841 debates or the Act itself that separate schools were a "privilege" or that they were not a definite part of the general educational system.

16. The above Act applied to both the Canadas. In 1843 an educational Act was passed for Upper Canada alone (7 Victoria, Chapter 29). The 1843 Act, like its predecessor, included separate schools as a part of the common school system. However, it did not make provision for the establishment of separate schools for the various Protestant denominations, although Protestants could form a separate school if the teacher of the original school were a Roman Catholic. The basis of dissent was to be the religion of the teacher, while at the same time in no school was a child obliged to "read or study in or from any Religious Book, or to join in any exercise of Devotion or Religion, which shall be objected to by his or her Parents or Guardians." (Section LIV).

17. How Protestant and Catholic separate schools were considered integral parts of the common school system is indicated in the separate school provisions of the 1843 Act:

LIV. And be it enacted, that in all cases, wherein the Teacher of any such School shall happen to be a Roman Catholic, the Protestant Inhabitants shall be entitled to have a School with a Teacher of their own religious persuasion, upon the application of ten or more resident Freeholders or Householders of any School district, or within the limits assigned to any Town or City School; and in like manner, when the Teacher of any such School shall happen to be a Protestant, the Roman Catholic Inhabitants shall have a separate School, with a Teacher of their own religious persuasion, upon a like application.

LVI. And be it enacted, that such applications shall be made in writing, signed with the names of each resident Freeholder or Householder, and addressed and delivered to the Township, Town or City Superintendent; and such application shall contain the names of three Trustees, who shall be the Trustees of such separate schools; and upon the compliance of such Trustees, and of the Township, Town or City Superintendent, with the requirements of this Act, such School shall be entitled to receive its share of the public appropriation, according to the number of Children of the religious persuasion who shall attend such separate School, which share shall be settled and adjudged by the Township, Town or City Superintendent, subject to an appeal to the County Superintendent; and all such separate Schools shall be subject to the visitations, conditions, rules and obligations, provided in this Act with reference to other Common Schools or to other Town or City Schools established under this Act.

18. The 1840's, therefore, see the real origins of Ontario's common school system. During this time, Right Rev. Michael Power was the first Bishop of Toronto, a diocese which was formed in December, 1841. Bishop Power was vitally concerned in the matter of Catholic education and was a vigorous supporter of separate schools. If Catholic educational institutions were few it was the fault of Catholic poverty, not of ecclesiastical indifference. In a letter of January 16th, 1845, to Msgr. Mildé, Archbishop of Vienna, he described the pathetic state of his diocese where he had "neither seminary, college, nor convent":

Le nombre de Catholiques dans tout le Diocèse est entre 50 à 60,000; le nombre augmente rapidement tous les jours par l'émigration et l'accroissement naturel de la population . . . Tout est nouveau en ce pays et nos ressources sont presque nulles. Le Catholique y arrive dans la pauvreté et denué de tout: il s'établit sur différens points du pays: peu à peu des Congrégations ou missions se forment et la foi se repard de tou cotés . . . Nous avons dans les missions 42 Eglises mais presque toutes extrêmement pauvres . . . Le plupart des Eglises ne sont pas achevés et il leur manque a toutes, excepté à deux, plusieurs des choses qui seroient par tout ailleurs jugées presque nécessaires au culte . . .

Nous n'avons ni Séminaire, ni Collège, ni Couvent, en un mot nous ne faisons que commencer un tout. (17)

19. As far back as 1842, the Bishop had appealed to the Jesuits to do mission work "and educate the young" in his diocese. (18) Power was anxious to establish Catholic schools on all levels. In May, 1847, he wrote to the Archbishop of Munich urging that Christian Brothers be sent to his diocese to conduct elementary schools (19), and in January, 1845, he had joined the Bishops of Kingston, Quebec, and Montreal in petitioning that the proceeds of the Jesuit Estates be turned over to Catholic "institutions of Superior Education." The petition, addressed to the Governor-General, pointed out that: "Your Excellency is well aware of the efforts which have been made at all times by the Catholic clergy for the advancement of education in this country, aided as they have been by Her Majesty's Provincial Government and by the generous liberality of their fellow citizens." (20)

20. While we find Bishop Power in no public controversy over Catholic Schools, such as distinguished Bishop de Charbonnel's period of office, yet there is ample evidence in the Power papers to prove that his view of Catholic education was not dissimilar to that of his successor. In November, 1843, we find Power petitioning for land for a Catholic school in Toronto (21), and in the same month he is seen taking a strong stand on the question of separate school legislation, when he wrote the Hon. Dom. Daly, provincial secretary: "I have the honour of sending you enclosed one or two remarks on the school bill:¹ I am convinced that this is the time for obtaining all reasonable concessions on the part of those who seem opposed to us." (22)

¹Annoyingly enough, we now have no record of these enclosed remarks which would undoubtedly reveal more specifically Power's views.

21. In the following year, Power supported certain laymen of Toronto who protested the division of school taxes. Unfortunately, the details of the alleged grievances are not known, but the House of Assembly on the 19th of December, 1844, heard a petition from M. T. O'Brien and other Roman Catholics of Toronto "praying that the Common School Act may be amended so that they be allowed a just proportion of the Common School moneys." (23) Power backed this petition, for in December, 1844, he sent Rev. Angus McDonell the following note:

The Catholics of Toronto are sending down a petition to request the legislature to amend the School Act so they may be benefited by its enactments. I believe they intend sending it to members of the City of Toronto. Mr. Baldwin has promised me to support the prayer of the Petition. (24)

22. Catholic education was not a privilege extended "as a protection from insult", but rather it was a right. This was clearly cardinal in Power's thought, as is evidenced in this remark to the Roman Catholic priest at Wilmot: "Catholics have a right to a school of their own and this ought to be the case in every school district when practicable. The trustees must be in every case Catholics chosen according to law and the School Master a member of the Catholic Church." (25)

23. Only the small number of Catholics in rural areas prevented the formation of separate Catholic schools. Wherever possible, Catholics were to have their own schools, Bishop Power held, but explained that when circumstances forced them into mixed schools, care must be taken that they avoid Protestant religious exercises. In July, 1845, he told the pastor at St. Thomas that:

You ought to know that the Bible cannot be made use of as a mere class book and that no Catholic child can attend the reading of a chapter from the Protestant version of the Holy Scriptures. The Catholic children should be allowed to remain in a separate room until the usual lesson from the Holy Scriptures shall have been read; they can there read themselves a chapter from the authorized Catholic version of the New Testament. It would be preferable in every way if the parents of Catholic children could have a separate school of their own, but this must depend in a great measure on the number of Catholics in each locality. (26)

24. At a time when many could not see the advantages of educating a largely rural populace, Bishop Power insisted that parents were "bound" to bestow an education upon their children. At the same time this education must be combined with religion. These principles are manifested in an "Episcopal Mandate" for the mission of Belle River which the bishop issued in September, 1845:

We avail ourselves of this opportunity to exhort you most earnestly to send your children to schools conducted by good, moral and Catholic masters from whom they may receive not only that elementary education which you are bound to bestow upon your children if it be in your power but likewise that they may receive at the same time under the guidance of your Pastor those principles of religion and morality which will enable them to become not only faithful adherents to the true church but useful members of society. (27)

25. Bishop Power was not singular among the Catholic hierarchy in his attempt to arouse in Upper Canadian Catholics a sense of the values of education. Bishop Macdonell had stimulated educational interest among the early Catholics of the province. In a letter to the Governor-General in 1820, he tells of his "unremitting exertions of sixteen years past to establish schools among my countrymen of this district." Because of this, he said, all the rising generation in his area could now read. (28)

26. Concern with education was felt by all the ecclesiastical authorities. Forceful in his condemnation of educational apathy among the Roman Catholics was Patrick Phelan, Bishop of Carrhoe and Coadjutor Bishop and Administrator of the Kingston diocese. In November, 1847, he sent a sharp "Address on the University Question" to members of the Kingston diocese. Bishop Phelan professed that it was:

. . . with the greatest mental pain that we have constantly witnessed the apparent indifference and apathy you have not ceased to evince for that which, in the highest degree, concerns your temporal and eternal happiness—we mean the acquisition of proper means for affording Religious Education to the growing generation, as well as to place the Catholic Youth of Upper Canada upon an equal footing, in point of intellectual acquirements, with the youth of other Religious Denominations. (29)

If "bigotry and injustice" were really the reasons why Catholics suffered a subordinate place in public and professional life, then these obstacles must be counteracted by "an intellectual Catholic education", he continued. (30) It was no excuse to reply that the "present depressed state of . . . intellectual condition" was the want of education in their Irish homeland. This cannot "justify your apathy and neglect in using every devisable means, under present circumstances, to obtain Catholic education for your children in this the Country of your adoption." (31)

27. Bishop Phelan suggested not only that he objected to Catholics attending non-Catholic grammar and common schools, but that the small number of Catholic educational institutions was partially the fault of Catholic inertia. In a paragraph which bristles with the uncompromising pre-1850 stand of the hierarchy on Catholic education, Phelan remarked:

But even though it be true that, in Upper Canada, the District Grammar Schools, without exception, and nine-tenths of the Common Schools are in Protestant hands, and that nearly all Government encouragement, hitherto, for the diffusion of general knowledge has unfailingly resolved itself with them, it behooves us, on this account, the more to bestir you to an earnest sense of your moral and intellectual interests,—seeing how many educational advantages you may have suffered your children to be deprived of, through a most culpable apathy, and sheer want of action. (32)

28. The attitude of the Roman Catholic authorities in Upper Canada prior to 1850 plainly was not that Catholic schools were to be formed for "protection from insult" in violently anti-Catholic areas, but that parents were conscience-bound to provide a Catholic education for their children.

Catholics were to receive elementary, secondary, and university education in Catholic schools. As Bishop Phelan explained: "The fact is, that, in our age and country, it is not merely the effect of anti-Catholic instruction, but the absence of positive Catholic instruction, that is to be feared." (33)

NOTES

1. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. X, p. 176.
2. *Ibid.*
3. *Ibid.*, Vol. IV, p. 29.
4. *Ibid.*, pp. 22, 24.
5. *Ibid.*, p. 22.
6. *Ibid.*
7. *Ibid.*
8. *Ibid.*, p. 14. Hodgins has taken these debates from the *Canadian Mirror of Parliament*, Kingston, 1841.
9. *Ibid.*, p. 15.
10. *Ibid.*, p. 16.
11. *Ibid.*
12. *Ibid.*, p. 17.
13. *Ibid.*
14. *Ibid.*, p. 32.
15. *Ibid.*, p. 35. De Blacqui re declared that: ". . . The opinion and wish of the Church of England Bishop of Toronto was that the funds granted for education should be divided amongst the several Denominations of Christians, in proportion to their numbers; there was nothing unfair or unjust in this; it was a plan acted on, for instance, in France, where each Religious Denomination was taxed for the purpose of educating its own members, as the funds raised by general assessment were divided according to the relative numbers by the French Minister of Education, each educating those of their own persuasion;—but this system had its objections in a thinly peopled Country such as Canada, scattered over a wide extent of territory, and where it would be found difficult to collect children in sufficient numbers to support a denominational School, although the plan might be very feasible in Cities, or Towns. It was, however, quite clear that with conflicting opinions, such as have been stated as to the Bible, it was quite hopeless to expect that Protestants and Roman Catholics could be educated together. But, it did not follow, with the several denominations of the former, and who constituted the majority of the population of the Upper Province, that this could not be done."
16. Sir Francis Hincks, in a letter to Hodgins in 1884, recalled: "It is worthy of notice that, after the introduction of the School Bill, of 1841, a number of Petitions were presented, praying that the Bible should be adopted as a School Book. This led to the reference of the Bill to a large Select Committee, which recommended the introduction of the Separate School clause, which was not in the Bill as originally introduced." Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. IV, Prefatory Remarks, p. vi.
17. *Power Papers*.
18. *Ibid.*, Power to Very Rev. T. Roothaan, Superior General of the Society of Jesus, Rome, November 12, 1842.
19. *Ibid.*, Power to Msgr. Reisache, Archbishop of Munich, May 8, 1847.
20. *Ibid.*, Petition of the Catholic Bishops of Canada to Sir Charles T. Metcalfe, January, 1845.

21. *Ibid.*, Memorial from Power to the Governor-General, November 22, 1843.
22. *Ibid.*, Power to Hon. Dom. Daly, November 7, 1843.
23. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. V, p. 156.
24. *Power Papers*, Power to Rev. Angus McDonell, December 11, 1844.
25. *Ibid.*, Power to Rev. S. Sanderl. Wilmot, June 28, 1844.
26. *Ibid.*, Power to Rev. M. R. Mills, St. Thomas, July 8, 1845.
27. *Ibid.* Episcopal Mandate for the Mission of Belle River, September 19, 1845. In its emphasis on the role of the parent and the church in education, this passage is indicative of the Roman Catholic position in Ontario taken during future controversies.
28. *Macdonell Papers*, Vol. I, p. 27, Macdonell to Sir Peregrine Maitland.
29. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. VII, p. 59.
30. *Ibid.*, p. 60.
31. *Ibid.*
32. *Ibid.*, p. 61.
33. *Ibid.*, p. 63.

III. RYERSON AND THE NEW PLAN

1. Enthusiasm on the part of the Roman Catholic hierarchy for increased educational facilities was but one aspect of a general attitude toward education in the 1840's shared by Catholic, Protestant, and secularist alike. This spirit was to be channelled and directed by possibly the most outstanding man Upper Canada produced in that age—Rev. Egerton Ryerson, D.D.

2. Ryerson, a Methodist missionary of lofty intellect who combined a tolerant, informed, and broad outlook with sincere religious zeal, began his chief career—that of educationist—when he was appointed Assistant Superintendent of Education in 1844.¹ Shortly after his appointment, Ryerson visited more than twenty countries to inspect their school systems. Included in his tour were Great Britain, Prussia, Sweden, Holland, Austria, France, and Switzerland. On his return he drew up, in 1846, an elaborate "Report to the Provincial Secretary". On the basis of this report the Legislature passed a new school law (9th Victoria, Chapter 20).

3. This law provided for the position of Superintendent of Schools (which position Ryerson obtained), a General Board of Education (of which Bishop Power was appointed Chairman), District School Superintendents, uniform textbooks, property taxes for schools, governmental grants, formation of school sections, and the enlargement of the educational duties of municipal councils.

4. The 1846 Act was but the beginning of Ryerson's over-all plan. He believed in compulsory attendance in universally free schools, for the support of which all property was liable for taxation. Educational uniformity in the province was to be reconciled with a large degree of local control, balanced by a certain amount of central direction and aid.(1) Eventually, all these ideals were realized.

¹While Ryerson is not unjustly called the "founder of the school system" for this province, it should not be forgotten that he was not alone in his desire for a greatly improved educational programme, and also that others had done pioneer work in the field.

5. Perhaps Ryerson achieved such success not only because of his unquestionable genius, but because he combined this genius with singleness of purpose, vigour in action, and an unusual facility for propaganda. Like Bentham and Voltaire who lived long and wrote much, Ryerson won acceptance of his ideas not only because they were so convincingly presented, but because they were so often repeated.

6. For thirty years the public was to be treated to an unending stream from Ryerson's pen. In his annual reports, in pamphlets, and in newspaper controversies Ryerson appealed his case. At the same time he addressed innumerable meetings throughout urban and rural districts. Honest and disinterested, yet with a passion for his cause, he seemed always to emerge victorious in any controversy. He suffered the attacks of many bitter and powerful enemies, yet each of these attacks served only to offer another opportunity to explain his case and sway the public mind. Ryerson's life was succinctly summed up, in 1873, in this tribute from James G. Moylan, Roman Catholic newspaper editor and one of Ryerson's ardent opponents:

As to politics he really has none, but in free thought, in educating the masses he does believe. From the various educational systems of constitutional England, despotic Prussia, republican America, Holland, Ireland and Scotland, with the assistance of his own powerful intellect, he has perfected a plan, according to non-Catholic ideas, an improvement on all of them, maintaining their best, rejecting their worst features. He has been assailed by various Denominations and classes of our citizens, by dissatisfied Freeholders, by childless Ratepayers, by representatives of Churches, by Grit and Conservative newspapers, by politicians and by Administrations holding the most opposite views, and yet he has managed to stand his ground, and not only this but to enforce his educational opinions on the great majority of the people of this Province. At one time he is reported by a Tory governor as "a dangerous man" and a certain Toronto journal has pursued him with fierce malignity for years, and all kinds of politicians have at different periods attacked him in the bitterest way, and yet Egerton Ryerson has triumphed, and is at this day, in spite of all opposition, the great and successful vindicator of a free, universal education. This is the man whom Governments do not care to interfere with, and who cannot be crushed . . . (2)

7. Ryerson himself described the aim of his career when, on his retirement in 1876, he wrote to Hodgins that together they had laboured "with a single eye to promote the best interests of our country, irrespective of religious sect or political party—to devise, develop, and mature a system of instruction which embraces and provides for every child in the land a good education; good teachers to teach; good inspectors to oversee the schools; good maps, globes, and textbooks; good books to read; and every provision whereby municipal councils and trustees can provide suitable accommodation, teachers, and facilities for imparting education and knowledge to the rising generation of the land." (3)

8. It is not to be wondered that Ryerson's views of the Roman Catholic school question have been taken almost as the sole authority on the history of this problem. During his lengthy term of office, the Ontario educational system received its form and the history of Ontario education has been

largely the history of Ryerson. Therefore, if Ryerson were mistaken on any major point, that mistake would become imbedded in the structure of provincial education and his views would be repeated by later educationists.

9. That Ryerson was mistaken in his opinions on Catholic education is evident. That this fundamental mistake has caused misunderstanding, confusion, and bitterness among the Protestants of Ontario and hardship and anger among the Catholics is a natural effect from a well-meaning but misguided cause.

10. Ryerson felt that Catholic separate school agitators were endangering the school system he was trying, with great difficulty, to establish. Usually a tolerant and just man, he was willing to allow Catholic separate schools "as a protection from insult", and would administer the law fairly. But he regretted the wisdom of separate school legislation and hoped eventually that the educational system would be uniform. He thought that in opposing the extension of these schools he was not only protecting the public schools but defending the Catholic body against their own ecclesiastics. In many ways a typical nineteenth century "liberal", he denounced what he considered to be the anachronistic, despotic, and reactionary tendencies of ultramontaniam which he said were causing innovations in Upper Canada.

11. How Ryerson was mistaken in his opinion that the pre-1850 Catholic officials were not earnest advocates of separate schools has been shown in the preceding two sections. How the Catholic laity and clergy have co-operated and united their forces to give a Catholic education to Catholic children has been demonstrated not only by the formation of separate schools during the last century, in spite of official distaste and Catholic poverty, but even more clearly by the amazing growth of these schools in the present day, although still operating under financial handicaps.

12. Interested as we are in the historical position of all major groups in the matter of religious education, it would well be worthwhile to examine Ryerson's attitude with care. In his famous 1846 "Report on a System of Public Elementary Instruction for Upper Canada", Ryerson outlined the principles of his educational plans. The first feature of our provincial educational system, he said, must be its universality, that is the children of the poor must be able to attend school.(4) Similarly, in a circular to County Municipalities in 1846 he insisted that every child should be given an education and all property holders should pay for this:

... every inhabitant of a country is bound to contribute to the support of its Public institutions, according to the property which he acquires, or enjoys, under the Government of the Country.

... every child born, or brought up in the Country, has a right to that education which will fit him for the duties of a useful citizen of the Country, and is not to be deprived of it, on account of the inability, or poverty, of his parents, or guardians. (5)

13. Through local control, Ryerson explained in 1857, individual citizens were protected in educational matters from a despotic, centralized control. Attacks upon the general public school system, therefore, were an "invasion of powers, privileges and aids, which have been conferred by law upon municipalities of the country, and form a part and parcel of the constitutional rights of the people." (6) Replying to the Catholic charge that he was failing to take into account the prime responsibility of the parent, Ryerson saw the state as the "collective parent":

The state, therefore, so far from having nothing to do with children, constitutes their collective parent, and is bound to protect them against any unnatural neglect or cruel treatment, on the part of the individual parent, and to secure to them all that will qualify them to become useful citizens of the State. (7)

14. Herein lay a basic conflict with the position of the Catholic hierarchy. Without denying that the State should protect a child against the unnatural parent, yet at the same time the State was not so much a "collective parent" as the instrument for the individual parent. If Catholic parents wished to follow the teachings of their church in the matter of schools, the State should co-operate. Ryerson, believing that a minority of "foreign ecclesiastics" wished to inflict clerical control on an unwilling Catholic people, refused to agree. This was not "freedom of education", Ryerson thought, it was rather: ". . . a despotism in the state over the state,—despotism in the family over the parent—a surrender of the rights and functions of both the state and the parent to a clerical absolutism under which humanity writhes and society retrogrades." (8)

15. Yet Ryerson did not attack religious education as such. He assented to the 1847 Act which permitted municipalities to establish denominational schools if they wished. (9) As we shall see, he did not object to a Catholic majority in an area forming a Catholic common school (even if it were a French Catholic school!), and in his defence of the claims of Victoria College he asserted principles of religious education and outlined a general pluralistic view on education which should have given a boost to the bombastic, but sometimes inept, polemics of early Catholic apologists.

16. A clue to Ryerson's outlook can be found in a letter written in 1841, in which he mentioned the "common faith of Protestantism". (10) It was this "common faith" which Ryerson hoped to make the basis of his school system, while at the same time protecting the rights of those who would object to the accepted version of "common faith". Viewing differences in denominations as the "peculiarities of Sects", the Chief Superintendent was explicit in demanding a dominant place for Christianity in the new school system. In a letter explaining his draft of the 1846 School Act, he said: "I assume, also, that Christianity—the Christianity of the Bible—regardless of the peculiarities of Sects, or Parties is to be the basis of our System of Public Instruction, as it is of our Civil Constitution . . ." (11)

17. On his first official visit, as Chief Superintendent, to the various municipal districts (in September-November, 1847) he again pointed out the essential role of Christianity in his programme. Education to be worthy of the name must be Christian, but it should be a scriptural Christianity, not the denominational teachings of any group:

. . . the Education to which I have had reference in the foregoing observations, and which I believe to be essential to the well-being of an agricultural population, is Christian—using the term in the sense of the Scriptures, from which it is derived, as embracing what Christians, of every form of worship, hold in common, without reference to the peculiarities of any. I do not regard any instruction, discipline, or attainments, as Education, which does not include Christianity . . . It is the cultivation and exercise of man's moral powers and feelings which forms the basis of social order and the vital fluid of social happiness; and the cultivation of these is the province of Christianity . . . (12)

18. Although education itself cannot make Christians, "it is a divinely appointed instrumentality for the accomplishment of that divine end", Ryerson maintained in an address in 1853, in which he explained that:

It is the Christian and social virtues that form the basis, the cement, and the very soul of individual and social happiness; and it is a rare thing indeed, and contrary to nature, that a man in a Christian Country will exhibit these virtues, and enjoy the advantages and happiness which they confer, who has not been taught them in his youth . . . it appears to me passing strange how any man assuming the name of Christian, can neglect the Christian education of his son, while no pains, or expense, are wanting in making him a skilful Grammarian . . . (13)

19. In attacking the short-lived Cameron School Bill of 1849 (which had diminished the possibility of religious instruction and neglected separate schools), Ryerson told Attorney General Robert Baldwin that: "I think there is too little Christianity in our Schools, instead of too much; and that the united efforts of all Christian men should be to introduce more, instead of excluding what little there is." (14) If Christianity is ignored in the schools, denominations would not only be justified in establishing their own schools but should be encouraged to do so. Ryerson bluntly added:

The advocates of Public Schools meet the advocates of sectarian schools, not by denying the connection between Education and Sectarianism, but by comprehending Christianity in the system, and only rejecting sectarianism from it. The same, I think, is our safety and our duty. Be assured, that no System of Popular Education will flourish in a Country, which does violence to the Religious sentiments and feelings of the Churches of that Country.

"Be assured, that every such system will droop and wither, which does not take root in the Christian and patriotic sympathies of the people; which does not command the respect and confidence of the several Religious Persuasions, both Ministers and Laity,—for these, in fact, make up the aggregate of the Christianity of the Country. The cold calculations of un-Christianized selfishness will never sustain a School System. And, if you will not embrace Christianity in your School System, you will soon find that the Religious Persuasions will commence establishing Schools of their own; and I think they ought to do so, and I should feel, that I was performing an imperative duty in urging them to do so. But if you wish to

secure the co-operation of the Ministers and Members of all Religious Persuasions, leave out of your system the points wherein they differ, and boldly and avowedly provide facilities for the inculcation of what they hold in common, and what they value most, and that is what the best interests of a Country require.(15)

20. As explained in his 1859 Annual Report, Ryerson thought that the “common basis of Christianity” was more than a system of universally accepted ethics. Students should be taught the Bible so that they could learn “the way to Heaven”.(16) At the same time the government itself was not the religious instructor, he pointed out in 1848, rather “it confines itself to the more appropriate sphere of securing the facilities of Religious Instruction, by those whose proper office it is to provide for, and communicate, it”.(17) At another time he stated that it was up to the trustees to determine the “extent and manner” of religious education, for the trustees were the “chosen guardians of the Christian educational interests of the youth in each School Section”.(18) However, Ryerson always emphasized the legal right of any parent to allow his child to withdraw from any religious exercise.(19)

21. In 1871 he prepared a text for Protestant religious instruction in schools, entitled *First Lessons in Christian Morals*. Ryerson said that his intentions in publishing this book were to provide for Protestants in public schools what Catholics enjoyed:

Besides desiring a small amount of religious teaching, one hour in the week, for the senior pupils of the public schools, which the trustees and parents might approve, I did desire a united testimony on the part of Protestantism, as there is a united testimony on the part of Roman Catholicism, as to religious teaching in the schools . . . While I have provided and contended for full provision by which the Roman Catholics could teach their own children in their own books of religious instruction, I did desire that there might be a somewhat corresponding unity of testimony and teaching in religious principles and duties of common agreement among Protestants . . .(20)

This plan was protested by a group of clergymen (mostly Baptist) who petitioned the government in 1872 that the book contained “sentiments of a sectarian nature”. Use of this book in the public schools would be a “violation of the rights of conscience” and an “entire subversion of the principle of Religious Equality on which our system of Education is founded”.(21)

22. Not all Protestants felt this way. Alexander Marling, Clerk of the Council of Public Instruction, probably echoed Ryerson’s views when he asserted that while the book was not “for those who do not receive the Bible as the rule of their faith and practice, and who do not rely on Jesus Christ alone as the foundation of their hopes of eternal life”, nevertheless he felt that most of the public school supporters did assent to Ryerson’s view of Christianity.(22) Marling pronounced that while the rights of conscience were to be observed, yet Christianity should “pervade the character of the school system”¹(23)

¹Here, as in so many other places, early Protestant apologists of religion in schools use phrases not unfamiliar to present-day Roman Catholic arguments.

23. In his own defence, Ryerson pointed out that the provisions for religious instructions mitigated the opposition of those Protestants who wanted religion in the schools:

When the School System was first established, the Clergy and many Members of the Church of England objected to it as ignoring Christianity; and a portion of the Presbyterian Clergy and their Members insisted upon the recognition of Christianity and Religious Teaching as in Scotland; but when they found that I entertained the same views as themselves, and provided for their practical recognition, every objection was withdrawn, and all Christian Denominations, as well as all classes of the Community, have given their cordial support to the System . . . (24)

It was not for any pecuniary reason that he wanted the book used, Ryerson said, pointing out that he had done the work gratuitously, but he deprecated "the weakening in any degree, of the Christian foundations of our Public School System." (25)

24. An earnest defender of Ryerson's book was Bishop A. N. Bethune of Toronto who, in his Charge to the Church of England Synod in 1872, ascribed the "increasing spread of evil" to the neglect of religious instruction in early life. He attacked governments which afforded "a shallow secular education, without the learning of religious truth". It was a serious error, he said, to train children for worldly occupations without inculcating the "love and fear of God". (26)

25. Ryerson did not always stress the religious basis of the public school system. At the height of his fierce struggle with the second Roman Catholic Bishop of Toronto, Armand Francis Mary de Charbonnel, the Chief Superintendent flatly stated that "the sole object of Public Schools is Secular Education." (27) In his Annual Report for 1855 Ryerson was most explicit in his condemnation of separate "sectarian" schools. He maintained that since "a System of Public Instruction being founded upon the principle that it is the duty of the State to provide for the School Instruction of all its Citizens, it follows that none should be excepted from its advantages, or obligations". (28)

26. In a public educational system like that in Upper Canada in which there are diversities of religious opinion, the state gave secular training while religious teaching was the responsibility of "parents and religious persuasions", Ryerson held. Religious instruction could be given in the school but, apart from the general body of secular instruction, outside regular school hours. (29) To form separate religious schools, he claimed, would weaken the public school system and harm the children of the separatists:

If Public Schools are founded at the Public Expense, and for the public good, no citizens can be separated from them without injury,—injury in some degree to the Public Schools on the ground of support,—but much greater injury to the parties separated, as being deprived of the advantages of the Public Schools, and compelled to support other Schools at greater expense, and, generally, less efficient ones, and with the additional disadvantage of being severed and alienated from

other classes of the community, with whom their interests, position and future prospects, are largely associated . . . (30)¹

27. In the event that a state does permit sectarian schools, then that is an indulgence or favour, not a right, Ryerson stated, "since no Religious Sect has a constitutional claim to more than equal and impartial protection in the enjoyment of access to the Public Institutions of the Country".(31)² Turning from a general principle to the specific instance of the school legislation of 1841, Ryerson declared that here separate schools were granted not as a right, but as a privilege. Upon what legal or historical grounds Ryerson based this claim, he did not say.

28. Ryerson again recorded that "it is only since 1850 that any persons have pretended to demand Separate Schools as a 'right' and not as a 'favour'." (How wrong he was on this point we have demonstrated earlier in this appendix). In spite of the unusual nature of the privilege granted separate school supporters, yet these privileges once granted became legal rights and could not lightly be taken away, no matter how regrettable the original grant, he added. The Chief Superintendent concluded, therefore, that these laws ought to remain on the statute book, but if Catholics continued to renew agitation, to seek to "subvert the Public School System", and to try to force legislation by Lower Canadian votes and "the highest terrors of ecclesiastical authority", then the only alternative would be to abolish the separate school law.(32)

29. This spirited attack on Roman Catholic demands was the result not of Ryerson's distaste for Catholic religious teaching in their own schools, but because of fear for the Upper Canadian public school system. In reading Ryerson's attacks on the "foreign ecclesiastics", his proposals for religious instruction in the common schools, and his defence of Victoria College, one sees Ryerson in the dual role of Methodist minister and public education official. At times the roles seem to diverge.

30. Such a duality he hoped to bridge by assigning the responsibility for religious teaching in day schools to the "parents and pastors" of the children. The state was to be responsible for secular training, parents and pastors for religious. In his Annual Report for 1859, Ryerson affirmed that God had enjoined the teaching of religion upon ministers and parents. To turn this

¹If Ryerson had an effective argument against separate schools, this was it. Yet, whether separate schools do harm the general system or divide their students from the general body of the community is debatable in the light of actual experience in Ontario. And surely the answer to Ryerson is the argument of order. If Christianity is the most essential factor in education, then to ignore it or even to subordinate it in favour of "unity" or "social advancement" would be absurd, if not idolatrous.

²Such an argument depends upon premises unacceptable to Catholics. The right of education is with the parent, not with the state, whose office is to aid the parent. If a large and responsible religious body objects in conscience to the school system of the majority, then that minority should not be forced to support public schools merely because the public schools are backed by number.

task over to the state would be to neglect their own responsibilities, while, at the same time, the state would go beyond its proper sphere.(33)

31. On the other hand Ryerson thought that the public school would still offer facilities for the teaching of religion:

But, where the Authorities and Supporters of Schools are disposed to introduce into the Schools, mixed Religious teaching to a greater extent than has been proposed, there would be no compromise of Religious faith in their doing so; since there is no difference in the essentials of faith, any more than of words, among all the Religious Persuasions of Upper Canada, except one, or two, small Congregations of Unitarians and Jews . . .(34)

Protestant sects, he said, all "rally under the standard of one Bible, and aim also at a common object". Even Catholics and Protestants could unite by ignoring differences, and in the schools confine teaching to the Ten Commandments, the Apostles' Creed and the Lord's Prayer, leaving specifically denominational matters to home and church instruction. There was no reason why combined religious teaching could not be carried on in the public schools, were this not prevented by "adverse jealousies and influences".¹(35)

32. While Ryerson hoped to save both a universal school system and religious training with this broad programme, he should have realized that just as Protestants in Quebec would not subscribe to "mixed teaching" under a Catholic aegis, Catholics would also reject this in a Protestant milieu. In this regard it is interesting to see that Ryerson himself, in 1844, observed in Paris that the French Protestants resented the mixed schools and desired their own exclusively Protestant schools.(36)

33. It was no contradiction to support a common elementary education but a denominational system of higher education, Ryerson believed. In 1847, he gave these reasons for supporting the Macdonald University measure, a bill which would have aided denominational colleges:

In the home education of Common School Children, where they are every day, and on Sabbaths, under the care of their parents and their chosen Spiritual Teachers, the Government can combine with the people at large, without reference to Religious Persuasions, for the purpose of elementary education. But, on those higher scientific and literary branches of education, in the pursuit of which the young man, at the most dangerous and eventful period of his life, is necessarily severed from the parental roof and the domestic Sabbath, more care, and more religious instruction than any State can give, is imperatively demanded, upon the double ground of patriotism and religion. That demand some Religious Persuasion alone can supply. The State may not be benefited, or injured, by the Sectarian peculiarities of any one Religious Persuasion; but it is greatly benefited by the Christian principles and morality common to different Religious Persuasions, and may avail itself of their co-operation in promoting the common good.(37)

¹Such a proposition was hardly acceptable to Roman Catholics, and to a large body stressed the sacramental nature of Christianity. Nor would "common religious teaching" of the Church of England, who believed in the immanent Divinity of the Church and today be acceptable without difference of opinion between the modernist, liberal Protestant and the fundamentalist, a problem which was not serious in Ryerson's own day.

34. Church of England and Catholic opponents of Ryerson were not slow to point out the flaw in his premise. While they agreed with his able defence of public support for denominational colleges, they could not see why his arguments could not be applied to denominational elementary schools. The fact was that, whatever may have been the case in certain strict middle class Methodist homes, the picture that Ryerson draws of the child hurrying home from school to enjoy the benefit of theological exposition from parents and pastor at the family hearth was as absurd in 1850 as it is today. Ryerson himself must have seen this in his more reflective moments as when he once asked "who train their children to pray, even at home?" (38)

35. The Chief Superintendent believed not only in public aid for denominational colleges on the university level, but also in assistance for denominational secondary schools, providing they were residential schools. (39) In his defence of denominational education on the higher levels, he gave excellent replies to his own charges of "sectarianism" in education. A public meeting on the university question, held in Kingston, in 1861, heard Ryerson ask:

What is the history of a Country, but the history of the Religious Denominations of that Country? What is the Christianity of a Country, but the Christian Denominations of that Country? And what would be the history of Canada without regard to its religious Denominations? No professed Christian can pretend to do away with Denominational Instruction, without being hypocritical. If Religious Instruction is good on the Sabbath, is it not good on the week-day? Is it bad to have youth under those influences on the six days of the week, as well as on the seventh? And every Parent who desires his children to be imbued with these feelings, will feel the obligations on him to provide his children with those influences every day, every hour, when they are away from the protection and sympathy of a Mother's heart, and a parental fireside . . . (40)

36. How Catholic separate school protagonists must have wished for a controversialist with Ryerson's eloquence to say on behalf of Catholic schools what the Methodist minister said about denominational colleges! In 1868, he sent a letter to Hon. John Sandfield Macdonald, Premier of Ontario, protesting the cutting off of governmental aid to denominational colleges such as Victoria. Ryerson enclosed some editorials he had written for the *Christian Guardian*. In one editorial he remarked:

The heart of every Christian Father and Mother feels, without any elaborate teaching, that for their Boy to become a good and honourable, a successful, and a useful man, the principles of action are of vastly greater moment than familiarity with the propositions of Geometry, or the structure of Greek and Latin sentences. Skill in the latter, without the Divinity of the former, is like a Body without a Heart, or the World without a Sun . . . If it is important to every Country, Town and Neighborhood that its Clergymen, Lawyers, Physicians, highest Teachers, as also best educated Youth should . . . be men of intellectual culture, it is equally important . . . that the Collegiate Education of the Country should combine all that is Divine and practical in Christianity with what is refined and solid in Scholarship. (41)

37. In denying that his conception of denominational education involved "union of Church and State", Ryerson stressed the prime role of the teaching authority of the Church. Union of state and church involves the support of the clergy by the state and the domination of the clergy by the state, Ryerson observed, pointing out that Wesleyan clergy had refused to accept salaries from the state. Such a union of church and state was wrong, but, in another sense, in its teaching mission, there should be union:

In a true and scriptural sense, it must be the object of every Section of the Christian Church that is faithful to its Divine Mission to accomplish this true and scriptural union of Church and State, by bringing (through its teachings of every description), all the Members, Institutions, Laws, Administrations of the State, and of the World, into harmony with and subjection to the authority of Christ. And the more facilities any Church has for this great end of its existence, and the more faithful it is in the use of them, the more perfectly will it fulfil its Mission. (42)

38. A pluralistic system of education which would unite the contributions of the various denominations was advocated in another editorial sent to Macdonald. Ryerson attacked the theory that "a national system of education, worthy of the name, must be one throughout". This idea led to despotism, he held, and he advocated a diversity which would lead to emulation rather than an ossified uniformity:

... the advocates of free government on both sides of the Atlantic, have advocated the utmost latitude of liberty in education, and the recognition and encouragement of all the diversified elements in society for the promotion of education. The characteristic of despotism, whether by one Church, or against all Churches, is uniformity and centralization; the characteristics of freedom are diversity and dispersion. Nor would there be any improvement or progress, in society, if there be but one recognized method of doing anything. The vital element of all social progress is diversity, competition, emulation,—the very principle repudiated by the advocates of one endowed college system.

Even in our Common School System, this 'broad' (although very narrow) 'principle' of dead uniformity, is not recognized; for local funds may be provided as the people wish, either by voluntary individual subscription, or Rates on property; and the Board of School Trustees in the Cities, Towns and Villages, can establish 'any kind, or description, of Schools' they please, whether Boys' or Girls', Schools, or whether Denominational, or Non-Denominational, as has often been shown; and as each School after having been established by local exertion, receives public aid for its support according to the average attendance of Pupils, the system of emulation pervades the entire system. (43)

Similarly, Ryerson denied that his common school system was, in essence, "non-sectarian". In a letter on the university question sent to the House of Assembly in 1861, he said:

The Collegiate system which I advocate is in harmony with the fundamental principles of our Common School System. The fundamental principle of that System is not, as has been absurdly stated, 'the non-sectarian principle', for it has provided for both Protestant and Roman Catholic Schools from the beginning; and the law leaves it entirely with the elected Board of School Trustees in Cities,

Towns, and Incorporated Villages, to establish Denominational Schools, or not, just as they please . . . (44)

39. On another occasion he provided ammunition for separate school supporters. In March, 1862, he presented a draft of a Bill to create denominational schools for vagrant children in the urban areas of Upper Canada. These schools were to be supported by public funds, but so great was the opposition to this plan as giving support to "sectarian" separate schools, that the scheme was dropped. (45) Ryerson's reply to his critics, asserting that all religious instruction was given by some "sect", did not recognize the distinction he had earlier made between "narrow sectarianism" and "broad Christianity":

I know of but one objection which can be urged against the measure proposed, and that is the bald and graceless one against what is called 'sectarian instruction.' In reply I may ask, what Religious Instruction is there which is not given by some 'Sect,' or Denomination, and, therefore, 'Sectarian' according to the Objector? The objection, therefore, is against all Religious Instruction, and can only be entertained by two kinds of individuals, (for there can hardly be classes of such monsters) the one infidel, who objects to all Religious Instruction in itself; the other the shrivelled bigot, who objects to all Religious Instruction sooner than any should be given by any other party than his own. With the sentiments of neither of these characters, can there be any sympathy in the mind of an enlightened statesman, or philanthropist. (46)

40. Therefore, the Chief Superintendent adopted the "secularist" position only when at the height of his controversy with Catholics in the 1850's. His position was almost always to favour a strong religious atmosphere in education. Although a convinced Protestant, he had no objection to Catholic teaching in the schools and his objection to separate schools was because of a fear they would destroy the common system, rather than because of scruples against the Catholic school as such.

41. Evidence of this can be found in his consistent support for the Catholic public school. A firm believer in a large measure of local autonomy in school matters, he upheld the right of Catholic ratepayers to form a public school in which instructions were given in the Catholic religion, and in some cases where French was used. He insisted, of course, that Protestant children were not obliged to attend Catholic exercises, just as Catholic children were not forced to attend Protestant instructions or prayers.

42. In the majority of districts in Upper Canada, Catholics were a minority and, as a consequence, the mixed school was predominantly Protestant in tone. However, in certain areas, mostly French, electors had chosen Catholic trustees to manage common schools. A report in the *Journal of Education* of February, 1849, shows that some of the schools in Bytown (later Ottawa) were clerical schools in which the Roman Catholic catechism was taught. (47) In Kingston, the trustees in 1854 were almost equally divided between Protestants and Catholics and it was only with

some difficulty that a slight majority of Protestants was able to induce the board to refuse to recognize three Roman Catholic schools as common schools. (48)

43. Both French and German could be used in the common schools, Ryerson thought. Qualifications for Third Class teachers, set out in Appendix I to the Annual Report of the Chief Superintendent for 1853, say that a knowledge of French or German grammar may be substituted for a knowledge of English Grammar.(49) In 1855, Ryerson told the Ottawa Board of School Trustees that the use of French and German "in the schools where the inhabitants speak them, is recognized by law." (50)

44. Ryerson clearly asserted the right of a French Catholic school to be considered a common school in a French Canadian area. In 1856 Thomas S. Bulmer, teacher and collector for School Sections Two and Five in Anderdon Township, Essex County, described his school as a free school supported by a general tax. All the children attending, with the exception of three Protestants, were taught Catholic prayers and the catechism. Most of the books used were French. Bulmer thereupon asked:

The questions involved here are: Have we, by teaching Catechism to the Catholic Children during school hours, and by using the Christian Brothers Books for Catholic Children, exempted the Protestants from tax, and made the School a Separate School, instead of a Common, or Public, School?(51)

To this the Chief Superintendent replied:

According to the . . . provisions of the School Act, and the Regulations founded upon it, you will perceive that the restriction, as to the use of foreign Books, does not apply to any published in French, or in any other than the English, language; that the Trustees, Teacher and Parents of the pupils of the School referred to by you, can exercise their own discretion as to the Prayers and Books of Religious Instruction and the Religious Instruction given to the pupils of the School . . . (52)

45. In 1857 Rev. Edward H. Dewar, Church of England Minister in Sandwich, wrote an angry letter to Ryerson in which he protested that the Catholic rate-payers, being in a majority, had formed a French Catholic common school, housed in Assumption College. Some Protestants in the area had formed a separate Protestant school, but since the trustees of the Protestant school had refused Dewar permission to give religious instruction, he did not wish to support it. Unhappily, his only alternative was to pay taxes to the Catholic school. The minister complained that in the common school:

Not only have the Teachers invariably been Roman Catholics, but Roman Catholic Books of Instruction have been employed, Roman Catholic Prayers have been used, the Crucifix is kept upon the Teacher's Desk . . .

. . . is it not a grievance that this school is held within the walls of a Roman Catholic College, and that they cannot even obtain instruction for their children in the language of the Land, in which they live? . . .

Can a majority of the Rate-payers convert the Common School of their Section into a department of a Sectarian College, which has no connection with the Common School System?

Have the Trustees the power of causing all instruction of a Common School to be given in a foreign language, so as practically to exclude all those who cannot, or do not wish thus to receive it?

Can a School, so conducted, claim the title and privileges of the Common School of the Section?(53)

To this Ryerson coldly replied that French was not a foreign language in Canada, and refused to countenance any of the Minister's objections:

. . . while the Trustees of a Common School can determine the kind of Religious Exercises to be used in such School, they cannot compel any Pupil to be present at them against the wish of the Parent, or Guardian, of such Pupil . . .

Neither French nor English, is regarded as a 'foreign' language by law in Canada, although each may be foreign to a portion of the inhabitants; and the language of the school must be determined by the Trustees. There are many School Sections, in which there are both French and Germans, who have to pay School Rates, but who cannot speak the language of the School, which is conducted in English. In your School Section, the reverse happens to be the case.¹(54)

46. This was not the only instance when a Protestant minority objected to the operation of the school laws. In 1853, a large number of Protestants in Bytown complained that their school taxes were going to Catholic common schools. They insisted that none of their tax money go toward the support of the common schools, and demanded a just proportion of the legislative grant.(55) In the same year, Protestants at Osgoode formed a separate school when the Roman Catholic teacher taught Catholic children the Catholic catechism, but refused to teach the Church of England catechism to a Protestant child.(56)

47. Consequently, it can be seen that the religion to be taught in the common schools depended upon the religion of the majority of the rate-payers in any one area. Ryerson approved, and indeed strongly recommended, religious instruction, yet, while he would allow no child to be forced to attend such instruction against his parents' will, did the Chief Superintendent's ideas grant adequate protection to the rights of the minority?(57)

48. If separate schools were but a special privilege unwisely granted by the Legislature, how otherwise were minorities to have their children taught religion as a regular part of school instruction? Why should the Catholics of one district be allowed to form Catholic schools because Catholics there were in a majority, yet in another area if a Catholic minority were to form their own school it would be a harmful separation from the common system? One group of Catholics could establish a Catholic school taught by religious teachers who would supervise Catholic prayers and impart instruction in Catholic theology, and thereby cause to withdraw those whose conscience did not permit them to accept such teaching. This school would receive Ryerson's official approval. Another group of Catholics, acting on the same principles as the first group, would form a Catholic

¹The Privy Council has decided that the use of the French language in Ontario schools was not guaranteed by the Confederation agreement. See *Trustees of the Roman Catholic Separate Schools vs. Mackell and Others* (1916).

school but if this time the Catholics were in a Protestant area, their school was to be frowned upon as having a deleterious effect on the whole school system and on the separating Catholics.

49. Theoretically, Ryerson supported religious education from the elementary to the university level. He wanted religion taught in the common schools and desired that the whole basis of the system should rest in Christianity. However, he thought that the state was not bound to give a religious education on the elementary level, no matter how desirable. Since religious teaching was primarily the responsibility of pastor and parent, while children lived at home there was no reason for denominational schools.

50. As important as was the function of religion in the schools, it was more essential still that the universal system be preserved, he felt. As he pointed out in his Annual Report for 1851, a provincial system of purely denominational schools would "cost the people more than five-fold what they have now to pay for School purposes" and would "leave the youth of minor Religious Persuasions, and a large portion of the poorer youth of the Country, without any means of education upon terms within the pecuniary resources of their parents, unless as paupers, or at the expense of their Religious Faith".(58)

51. It was to be the stand of Roman Catholic laymen and ecclesiastics that the state was not the "collective parent" but the instrument of individual parents. The right of education rested primarily in the parent, not the state, and while the resources of the collective state were to aid the parent, the ultimate responsibility for education remained with the parent who, if a Catholic, was obliged not only to see that his children were given a sound secular training, but also that such training was to be combined with Catholic teaching and given in a Catholic atmosphere. Such had been the tradition of the Catholics in Upper Canada, a tradition which was recognized as a right in legislation. The new plans for universal, free education must remain in accordance with Catholic practice and philosophy, Catholic apologists maintained, insisting upon a Catholic education for Catholic minorities as well as Catholic majorities, wherever practicable.

NOTES

1. See J. M. McCutcheon, *Public Education in Ontario*, Toronto, 1941, pp. 20-22.

2. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XXV, p. 203. Valedictory of the Editor of the *Canadian Freeman* on the editor's retirement (1873).

3. Egerton Ryerson (J. G. Hodgins, ed.), *The Story of My Life*, Toronto, 1883, preface, p. xi.

4. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. VI, p. 146.

5. *Ibid.*, Vol. IX, p. 73. In his Report of 1846, Ryerson explained what he meant by "education" (Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. VI, p. 142):

"By education, I mean not the mere acquisition of certain arts, or of certain branches of knowledge, but that instruction and discipline which qualify and

dispose the subjects of it for their appropriate duties and employments of life, as Christians, as persons of business and also as members of the civil community in which they live.

"The basis of an Educational structure adapted to this end should be as broad as the population of the country; and its loftiest elevation should equal the highest demands of the learned professions, adapting its gradation [sic] of schools to the wants of the several classes of the community, and to their respective employments or profession, the one rising above the other—the one conducting the other; yet each complete in itself for the degree of education it imparts; a character of uniformity as to fundamental principles pervading the whole; the whole based upon the principles of Christianity, and uniting the combined influence and support of the Government and the people.

"The branches of knowledge which it is essential that all should understand, should be provided for all, and taught to all; should be brought within the reach of the most needy, and forced upon the attention of the most careless. The knowledge required for the scientific pursuit of mechanics, agriculture and commerce, must needs be provided to an extent corresponding with the demand, and the exigencies of the country; while to a more limited extent are needed facilities for acquiring the higher education of the learned professions."

6. Egerton Ryerson, *Dr. Ryerson's Letters in Reply to the Attacks of Foreign Ecclesiastics Against the Schools and Municipalities of Upper Canada . . .*, Toronto, 1857, p. 72.

7. *Ibid.*, p. 70.

8. *Ibid.*, p. 71.

9. 10 & 11 Vict., Ch. 19. S.P.C. See Ryerson to the Hon. W. H. Draper, April 12, 1847, in C. B. Sissons, *Egerton Ryerson, His Life and Letters*, Toronto, Clarke, Irwin, 1947 (two vols.), Vol. II, pp. 135, 136, and the Chief Superintendent's Report for the Year 1847 in Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. VII, p. 178.

10. Ryerson to John Kent, December 29, 1841: "I blame you not for your strict and high principles as a churchman, but I do not think you make sufficient allowance for differences of *forms* and *ceremonies* in the *common faith* of *Protestantism*," Sissons, *op. cit.*, Vol. II, p. 11.

11. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. VI, p. 73.

12. *Ibid.*, Vol. VII, p. 148. In his Report of 1846, Ryerson amplified his position on "Christianity" and "Sectarianism," (Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. VI, pp. 147, 148):

"By Religion and Morality I do not mean sectarianism in any form, but the general system of truth and morals taught in the Holy Scriptures. Sectarianism is not morality. To be zealous for a Sect, and to be conscientious in morals are widely different. To inculcate the peculiarities of a Sect, and to teach the fundamental principles of Religion and Morality are equally different. Indeed schools might be named in which there is the most rigorous inculcation of an exclusive sectarianism, where there is a deplorable absence of the fruits of both Religion and Morality . . .

"Such teaching may, as it has done, raise up an army of pugilists and persecutors, but it is not the way to create a community of Christians. To teach a child the dogmas and spirit of a Sect, before he is taught the essential principles of Religion and Morality, is to invert the pyramid,—to reverse the order of nature,—to feed with the bones of controversy, instead of with the nourishing milk of Truth and Charity.

"In these remarks I mean no objection to schools in connection with a particular Religious Community,—wholly controlled by such Community, and where its

Worship is observed and its Creeds taught . . . I refer not to the constitution and control of Schools, or Seminaries, but to a kind of teaching,—a teaching which can be better understood than defined,—a teaching which unchristianizes four-fifths, if not nine-tenths, of Christendom,—a teaching which substitutes the form for the reality,—the symbol for the substance,—the dogma for the doctrine,—the passion for Sect, for the love of God and our neighbours;—a teaching which, as history can attest, is productive of ecclesiastical corruptions, superstition, infidelity, social disputes and civil contentions and is inimical alike to good government and public tranquility.

“I can aver, from personal experience and practice, as well as from a very extended enquiry on this subject, that a much more comprehensive course of Biblical and Religious instruction can be given than there is likely to be opportunity for doing so in Elementary Schools, without any restraint, on the one side, or any tincture of sectarianism, on the other,—a course embracing the entire History of the Bible, its institutions, cardinal doctrines and morals, together with the evidences of its authenticity . . .

“The misapplication and abuse of Religious Instruction in Schools have induced many to adopt a contrary error, and to object to it altogether as an element of popular education . . .”

13. *Ibid.*, Vol. XI, p. 41.

14. *Ibid.*, Vol. VIII, p. 240.

15. *Ibid.*, pp. 241, 242.

16. *Ibid.*, Vol. XV, pp. 7, 8, Annual Report of the Chief Superintendent for 1859.

17. *Ibid.*, Vol. VII, p. 226. Address to the Trustees of Common Schools in Upper Canada (1848). In his Annual Report for 1863 Ryerson declared he favoured clergy teaching religion in the schools to the children from their own denominations (*ibid.*, Vol. XVIII, pp. 117, 118). In 1864 he explained to the Chief Superintendent of Education for Lower Canada: “The Public School in each Section, District, or Division, is strictly non-denominational,—having no symbols, or ceremonies, or instructions, peculiar to any one Religious Persuasion, and to which any Religious Persuasion can object. The only exception to this, is wherein the daily exercises, in many of the Schools, are opened and closed by reading a portion of the Scriptures and Prayers; but this is at the option of the Trustees and Teachers, as also the version of the Scriptures and Prayers to be used; and no Pupils are required to be present at these Exercises, whose Parents, or Guardians, object to them. If the Teacher hears any Pupil recite a Catechism, it must be by private arrangement between the Teacher and the Parent, or Guardian, of such Pupil, and must not interfere with the regular Exercises of the School. The School House is allowed to be used one hour in each week between the hours of four and five in the afternoon, by the Clergyman of each Religious Persuasion, to give Catechetical, or Religious, Instruction to the Pupils of his own Persuasion, and the Trustees determine the day on which the House shall be used by each Clergyman.” (*ibid.*, pp. 197-198).

18. *Ibid.*, Vol. VII, p. 226.

19. *Ibid.*, Vol. XV, p. 8.

20. Ryerson, *The Story of My Life*, pp. 431, 432.

21. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XXIV, p. 200.

22. *Ibid.*, p. 203.

23. *Ibid.*, p. 205.

24. *Ibid.*, p. 207.

25. *Ibid.*, p. 210.

26. *Ibid.*, p. 90.

27. *Ibid.*, Vol. XI, p. 290.

28. *Ibid.*
29. *Ibid.*
30. *Ibid.*
31. *Ibid.*, p. 291.
32. *Ibid.*
33. *Ibid.*, Vol. XIV, p. 114.
34. *Ibid.*
35. *Ibid.*, p. 115.
36. Ryerson, *The Story of My Life*, p. 360.
37. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. VII, p. 47.
38. *Journal of Education for Upper Canada*, Vol. III, No. 11, November, 1850, p. 165. Ryerson describes an incident on a steamer when he saw a six-year-old German boy kneeling to say prayers before retiring, while the men in the cabin had neglected this observance—"Scarcely any passing incident in my life ever made a deeper impression on my mind. I went to my room, and thanked God that I had witnessed it, and for its influence on my heart. Who prays on a steamboat? Who train their children to pray even at home?"
39. See the *Christian Guardian* of February 25, 1846, quoted in Sissons, *op. cit.*, Vol. II, pp. 106, 107.
40. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XVI, p. 258.
41. *Ibid.*, Vol. XX, pp. 221, 222.
42. *Ibid.*, pp. 222, 223.
43. *Ibid.*, p. 219.
44. *Ibid.*, Vol. XVI, p. 292.
45. *Ibid.*, Vol. XVII, preface, p. iv.
46. *Ibid.*, p. 180.
47. *Journal of Education for Upper Canada*, Vol. II, No. 2, February, 1849, p. 30.
48. Egerton Ryerson, *Copies of Correspondence Between the Chief Superintendent of Schools for Upper Canada, and Other Persons, On the Subject of Separate Schools*, printed by Order of the Legislative Assembly, Toronto, 1855, pp. 79-88.
49. Annual Report of the Chief Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada for the Year 1853, p. 157.
50. Ryerson, *Copies of Correspondence*, p. 79, Ryerson to the Ottawa Board of School Trustees, February 7, 1855.
51. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XIII, p. 22.
52. *Ibid.*, p. 23.
53. *Ibid.*, pp. 177, 178.
54. *Ibid.*, p. 178.
55. Ryerson, *Copies of Correspondence*, p. 90.
56. *Ibid.*, pp. 160, 161.
57. See Annual Report of the Chief Superintendent for 1865, (Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XIX, pp. 112, 113).
58. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. X, p. 33.

IV. THE FIERY FIFTIES

1. The rapid growth of the common school system in the 1850's and 60's is matched by the intensity of the separate school controversy. While in the earlier days of Upper Canada the Catholic authorities laboured unostentatiously to establish schools, in the 1850's the struggle was carried to the public. Press and platform heard appeals formerly reserved for private ears.

2. To study this controversy through the eyes of Ryerson alone would be to miss the point of the whole movement. On individual items of complaint Ryerson would demolish his opponent, until one could not decide whether the impugner of the new school system was mendacious, malicious, or mentally unbalanced. When French-speaking Bishop de Charbonnel of Toronto¹ advanced with Ciceronian eloquence against the Chief Superintendent's cold but effective logic, the result was often unhappy for the Bishop. It is only when the principles of the two parties are examined that Charbonnel emerges the victor.

3. Bishop Charbonnel reported in 1852 to his mission headquarters in Rome that he had commenced "an open war" against the school system only after the failure of many private representations.(1) Whatever the immediate occasion of the public controversy, it was bound to come since Ryerson completely misunderstood the Catholic attitude toward the new era in school affairs which he was endeavouring to bring about. At the end of the first round of the battle in the spring of 1852, Charbonnel in a crisp note told Ryerson that "the conclusion of our correspondence must be that our opinions on separate schools are quite different".(2) It was all that could be said. There was no meeting of minds and any concessions would have to be won from public support and political action. As Charbonnel bluntly added: "But I hope that by making use of all constitutional means in order to obtain our right, I will not upset the government of Canada, nor its institutions."(3)

4. Ryerson's attitude as far back as his famed "report" of 1846, indicated his position and (when we remember the Catholic stand) the struggle to come. In his understandable desire for harmony, he ignored the role that Catholics always gave to the church in education. Speaking of the formation of Protestant and Catholic separate schools, he declared he was "persuaded all that is essential to the moral interests of youth may be taught in what are termed Mixed Schools".(4)

5. "Religious differences and divisions", he continued, "should rather be healed than inflamed; and the points of agreement, and the means of mutual co-operation, on the part of different Religious Persuasions, should, doubtless, be studied and promoted by a wise and beneficent Government, while it sacrifices neither to religious bigotry, nor infidelity to cardinal and catholic principles of the Christian Religion."(5)

6. Two years later Ryerson reported that the number of separate schools was diminishing and that therefore "the very small number of them shows that the provision of the school law permitting their establishment is of very little importance, either for good or evil". He believed that the "fewer the better" for the "interests of youth, and the diffusion of General Education",

¹Bishop of Toronto from 1850 until 1860, when he was succeeded by John Joseph Lynch. Charbonnel, a French nobleman, succeeded Bishop Michael Power, a Nova Scotian, who died in 1847 while ministering to his flock during an epidemic. The diocese was without a regular bishop until 1850.

but it would not be wise to repeal the law for fear of agitation.(6) Later, in 1857, he still hoped that Catholics would give up separate schools:

... the disadvantage, in both an intellectual and pecuniary, as well as in a social and civil, point of view, appears to me to be altogether on the side of those who voluntarily isolate themselves from the rest of their fellow Citizens. But I think that experience and persuasion, and not coercion, are the best arguments, under the circumstances, to remedy the evil self-inflicted by Roman Catholic Parents upon themselves, and upon so many of their Children ... (7)

This was the re-echoing of a hope he had expressed in 1851 that the growth of free schools would submerge separate schools:

As Free Schools are becoming the 'order of the day' in each of the Cities, and Towns, Separate Schools, (from their additional cost to their supporters), cannot exist beside them; and the separating parties will eventually be compelled to give them up and come into the Mixed Schools, in less advantageous circumstances than if they were at once to avow the principle of Mixed schools and ask consideration of their sentiments in the employment of a portion of the Teachers. Nor will they be able to demand a Separate School in any one, or more, Wards of a City, or Town, unless the Teacher employed by the trustees is of a different faith from theirs. (8)

7. The Chief Superintendent was referring here to the 1850 School Act (13 and 14 Victoria, Ch. 48). However, this Act while aiding common schools did not change Catholic educational principles. If the general educational picture were to be altered and improved, Catholics could not see why their schools should not be included. The conflicting views on this point between Ryerson and Catholic officials furnish the background for the fierce warfare soon to erupt.

8. Not having access to the Power and Macdonell letters and apparently considering Catholics in Upper Canada as an isolated unit completely different in sentiment from Catholics the world over, Ryerson failed to appreciate that a restrictive attitude toward separate schools would inflame feelings rather than snuff out "sectarian" aberrations from his dream of educational uniformity.

9. He continually asserted that the agitation of the 1850's was foreign to the spirit of Roman Catholicism in this province. In 1855, he told Attorney General John A. Macdonald that:

During the life of the Right Rev. Doctor Power ... and until Bishop de Charbonnel commenced his crusade and agitation three years since, ... no complaints were heard against the Separate School provisions of the School Law. Bishop Power, virtually a Canadian, being a native of Nova Scotia, had a particular desire to elevate the Roman Catholic population of the Country and believed that that would be best effected by their children being educated with the children of other classes, wherever party feeling did not oppose insuperable obstacles to it. Bishop de Charbonnel ... professed the same views and feelings during a year, or more, after his arrival ... (9)

10. This account was questioned by Hon. John Elmsley, leading Toronto Catholic layman, Rev. J. M. Bruyère, Vicar General, and Right Rev. P. A. Pinsoneault, Bishop of London. In a letter to *The Leader* in February, 1857,

Bishop Pinsoneault affirmed that it was "notorious" that both Bishops Macdonell and Power "laboured most faithfully and strenuously" to establish "thorough Catholic schools whenever and wherever circumstances permitted them".(10)

11. From letters uncovered in the Toronto Catholic Archdiocesan Archives, we know now that the bishop was correct, and Ryerson wrong, when the Chief Superintendent replied:

... there is not a vestige of proof to sustain it, in any circular, or letter, or writing, put forth by either of the excellent prelates mentioned ...

... I knew the sentiments of Bishop Power from frequent intercourse and consultation with him on School Matters; and I know that he and Bishop Charbonnel, --on his first coming to Toronto,--professed not to desire Separate Schools beyond what they termed 'protection from insult', that is, in such cases only where Roman Catholic children could not attend the Common Schools without being insulted and imposed upon, on account of their Religion. The necessity of a Separate School they lamented as a misfortune, instead of advocating it as a principle. In this feeling I entirely sympathized ... (11)

12. Attempts of Bishops Macdonell and Power to establish separate schools have been subjects in earlier sections. It was the attitude of these men that Catholic schools were an automatic right for Catholic children, not a mere "protection from insult" in exceptional cases. That there was a certain amount of "insult" in those days is historically true, but this was not advanced as the reason for separate Catholic schools.¹

13. Ryerson was in error, too, when he declared that the demand for separate schools did not begin until some time after Charbonnel took office. Rumblings of discontent began to emerge from laity and clergy even before Charbonnel arrived; when the new bishop did arrive he immediately took an active interest in Catholic schools, but in this he was not introducing "foreign" doctrine from abroad so much as he was giving countenance to urgent appeals from Catholic authorities in Upper Canada for increased Catholic educational facilities.

14. A year before Charbonnel's arrival, the trustees of the Roman Catholic separate school at Niagara petitioned the House of Assembly, on January 22nd, 1849, that the Common School Act might be amended "by providing for a more equitable apportionment of the School Fund".(13) In the same year, a group of Catholics expressed similar aims when Rev. T. Smith "and others" of Richmond requested the Legislature to assist

¹An interesting example of "insult" can be found in this letter from de Charbonnel to the Attorney General on the 17th of August, 1855:

"I am very sorry to have to tell you that the R. Catholics of the Counties of Grey, Bruce and vicinity together with their Missionary are very much molested by parties sworn against the liberty of conscience.

"For the credit of the country and with the hope that patience and time would be the best remedies to the evil, I did not apprise your honour of that persecution, but the bad spirit increasing, and the clergyman as prudent as zealous having been shot at several times, I am compelled to beg of you to let me know the most prudent course to be adopted in such a state of things."(12)

Regiopolis College. While the petitioners were concerned primarily with Roman Catholic education "in all the higher walks of learning", they objected to the whole educational picture:

That your Petitioners and the Brethren of their Religious Faith, forming as they now do one-fourth of the population of Canada West, have for a long time seriously deplored the lamentable want of efficient public aid, in providing consistently with their Religious Principles, a suitable education for their youth . . . (14)

In May, 1850, laymen from Kitley Township, led by Thomas Tracy, were apparently concerned with the government's new school measures when they petitioned the House of Assembly for the "re-establishment of Separate Schools, and the equitable distribution of Common School Fund". (15)

15. Even more definite evidence of Catholic opinion prior to Charbonnel's "foreign" agitation is the appeal of Rev. John Carroll, Administrator of Toronto diocese, written at his request by the Hon. John Elmsley to the new Bishop on the 21st of June, 1850, urging him when he arrived to give energetic attention to Catholic education. After first praising the assistance and kindness of the Protestants in Toronto toward the Catholics, Carroll declared:

But whenever you come we all feel convinced that your arrival will be the commencement of a new era: that religion and religious education will soon be placed upon the best possible footing: that religious orders will not be long in planting flourishing colonies in our midst: that the good Fathers of the illustrious Society of Jesus, will soon place themselves under your protection: that the Brothers of the Christian Schools will be emboldened to come and take charge of our elementary schools: that the devoted Ladies of Loretto, who are already labouring with the utmost assiduity, to form the minds and hearts of the female youth of this city will be encouraged to persevere in their Heavenly calling. (16)

16. Charbonnel's activities, after he assumed office, gave answer to this appeal. Of the need for Catholic schools in a pioneer and impoverished diocese, Charbonnel was only too painfully aware, for this was the time of the famed emigration of the Irish. As late as 1864, Charbonnel's successor, Bishop John Joseph Lynch, had described his Irish Catholics as a "defenceless and impoverished race". "The wonder is", Lynch said, "that so many have preserved the faith . . . Missionaries came from France, Germany, Italy, and of course from Ireland, but not in proportion with the number of the people." (17)

17. While Charbonnel did his utmost both to provide priests and schools, the task was immense. In 1855, he reported that while he had introduced forty-two priests into the diocese, at least sixty more were needed. (18) In the same year the bishop told the Mayor of Toronto that he was unable to contribute toward the patriotic fund because:

. . . the thousands of children who in Toronto and still more in the diocese are intellectually starving and perishing through want of religious education and of the means necessary for it, and the thousands of emigrants whom the most unjust tyranny sends us every year in a condition worse than that of the unfortunate victims of the Eastern war, have a privileged right in all my savings . . . (19)

18. In one of his first pastoral addresses, 19th October, 1850, Charbonnel wished for an increase in the number of Catholic elementary and secondary schools. He hoped for a betterment in diocesan finances so that:

We will be able to increase the number of our elementary schools, as it is much needed. When shall We see the venerable Ladies of Loretto . . . embrace all the City of Toronto and the other important places of the Diocese, with their invaluable education? When shall We see in Toronto a High School directed by the Fathers of the Society of Jesus? (20)

The concern of the new bishop with education was, therefore, noticeable immediately upon his arrival. It was not to be long until he was to begin his uphill fight for the extension of Catholic schools; certainly it was to begin even sooner than the rancorous debates of 1852.

19. The narrow interpretation of separate school legislation which has preceded Catholic agitation from the 1850's down to the Tiny Township and Ford Motor Company decisions of this century gave cause for Charbonnel's first major complaint in 1850. The nineteenth section of the 1850 Common School Act had provided that:

. . . it shall be the duty of the municipal council of any township, and of the board of school trustees of any city, town, or incorporated village, on the application in writing of twelve or more resident heads of families to authorize the establishment of one, or more, separate schools for Protestants, Roman Catholics or Coloured people, and, in such case, it shall prescribe the limits of the divisions or sections for such schools, and shall make the same provision for the holding of the first meeting for the election of trustees of each such separate school or schools, as is provided in the fourth section of this Act for holding the first school meeting in a new school section . . . (13 & 14 Victoria, Ch. 48).

Charbonnel applied to the Toronto trustees for another separate school, but his request was rejected. An appeal to the Court of the Queen's Bench followed the refusal, but it failed on the grounds that, whatever the Legislature had intended, the Trustees were bound to grant but one separate school. (21)

20. Bishop de Charbonnel's original application to the Toronto trustees shows a prudent moderation combined with a staunch assertion of the traditional Catholic position on education. While he evidently hoped to extend Catholic education to coincide with the new growth of the common school system, he would be modest in his demands so as to avoid bitter feeling between Catholics and Protestants. He found that mixed schools failed to meet the demands of Catholic principles and believed that the 1850 Act, if strictly followed, would be most favourable to Catholics who wished to form their own schools. Specifically, Charbonnel stated:

By the 19th Section of the new school act, separate schools can be demanded by parties therein mentioned, under certain salutary conditions and restrictions. Those portions of the Upper Canadian population which are in communion with the See of Rome have ever been most desirous of having the education of their youth conducted upon such principles as will ensure to them the intimate blending of religious teaching with secular learning; in mixed schools this is obviously im-

possible. Although by no means agreeing with us in the necessity, utility, or even good policy of such a concession, nevertheless our separated brethren of all denominations have, with few exceptions, consented to concede this point to us, and the Legislature has stamped the boon with the authority of an Act of Parliament, and has placed us in Upper Canada in the same favourable position in which the Protestant portion of the community in Lower Canada stand where they are not, as is well known, in many parts of that province, of the prevailing creed. Notwithstanding this advantage, the Catholic community of Upper Canada do not desire to stand up stiffly for their strict legal rights, when a harmonious understanding can be attained; they have every disposition to meet their separated Brethren upon equitable terms, and thereby avert the clashing and jarring which might ensue to their mutual great inconvenience, were the law to be rigidly followed out in all its details.

Charbonnel next pointed out that at that time the Catholics in Toronto had two separate schools and now wished a third:

But we now find that these two are quite insufficient to accommodate the large and rapidly increasing attendance of pupils at those schools, consequent upon the growing popularity of the National School System, and that therefore a third school for the eastern portion of the city has now become a want of the greatest necessity . . . (22)

21. The obduracy of the Toronto trustees in this matter was corrected, in 1851, by the Legislature, acting on Ryerson's advice. (23) On the 30th of August, 1851, royal approval was given to a remedial Bill (14 and 15 Victoria, Ch. 3) which enacted that the Toronto Catholics were entitled to have a separate school in each ward of the city. This was Charbonnel's first experience with local hindrances to separate schools, and his success in obtaining relief through legislative action was a lesson he did not forget.

22. Bishop Charbonnel found mixed schools to be unacceptable. On the 26th of May, 1851, he said in a letter to Rome that he wished Catholic schools to be entirely separate from the Protestant schools and that he was addressing the government to that end. "I am neglecting nothing to bring about the success of this vital question", he wrote, "Mixed schools, of which the best are those in which religion is excluded and the master indifferent, are here the ruin of our Catholic minority." Lord Elgin, the Governor-General, and his government were "sincerely liberal" toward the Catholics, Charbonnel thought, but he said that not all of the Legislature felt the same way. (24)

23. Charbonnel, having won the first battle, that of new separate schools in Toronto, began the second round of the long war in the autumn of 1851 when he complained against the apportionment of school taxes. In a letter to Inspector General Francis Hincks on November 1st, 1851, he combined a request for the adjustment of common school grants with a suggestion for help to educate priests. Although he wanted more separate schools, he was willing that these schools be subject to public examinations.

24. The Bishop told Hincks that attempts to obtain justice from the Toronto trustees were "of a very sad description for a true liberal mind." Specifying his objection, he continued:

I have been told that, if out of the £2500 that the board will have had to dispose of within twelve months on behalf of the City of Toronto I can get £200 for my Catholic children who are the fourth part of the children of that city, and the half of the poor ones, I will be very successful and ought to be quite satisfied.

The Bishop felt that only political action could ameliorate this situation:

I have no doubt that our legislature on its next session will put an end to such an injustice and give us a law worthy of our government with regard to the education of our Catholic children . . .

I ask only two things: Common Catholic separate schools on a quite liberal footing; and a noble share in the public funds for education, for the fundamental purpose of endowing the Garden Land of Upper Canada with the most excellent gardeners who would sow the grains and reap the fruit of morality and prosperity. For controlling Catholic schools I would ask public examinations, and for the funds put at the disposal of the R. C. Episcopal Corporation for Clerical Education, I would provide public accounts of their employments to the last penny.(25)

25. Catholics were to obtain greater assistance for their schools only after further political action. On November 24th, 1851, Hon. John Elmsley appealed to Rev. P. Schneider for assistance in the coming elections:

The General Elections are close at hand, and the hour is fast approaching in which like a band of brothers we should stand firm . . . and oppose by every allowable effort all candidates who are avowedly opposed to separate schools. Elmsley reported to Father Schneider that the Bishop had spoken "some time ago" to the Catholic Institute in Toronto. Referring to education, Charbonnel had:

. . . exhorted us to be united in one compact body to endeavour to obtain by all constitutional means separate schools throughout the length and breadth of the land, or wheresoever it might be deemed advisable to have them established.(26)

26. Charbonnel and the Toronto Catholics were not alone among Upper Canadian Catholics in their re-affirmation of the universal demand for Catholic schools for Catholic children. On March 3rd, 1852, a group of Bytown Catholics in a petition demanded aid for separate schools. An education, whether purely secular or "mixed", was incomplete and often "most dangerous" for families and for society, the petition read.(27) A few days later Bishop Phelan, Administrator of the Kingston diocese, in a pastoral address complained that:

. . . education, the source of intellectual life, by which the mind of man is formed, his feelings regulated, and his judgments fixed, has been almost entirely dis-severed from every connexion with the ministers of our religion, and made the vehicle of that cold scepticism and heartless indifferentism, which have seduced and corrupted the minds of youth.(28)

27. Thus, the famous 1852 controversy between Bishop de Charbonnel of Toronto and the Chief Superintendent of Education was not caused by a new policy which a "foreign ecclesiastic" attempted to force upon Upper Canada. While Ryerson hoped that the new "free schools" would eventually give the quietus to separate schools, Catholics welcomed the educational movement as a means to aid Catholic education. The demand of Catholic

laymen from Chatham for a greater share of the school grant was the immediate occasion for the flare-up.

28. On the 15th of January, 1852, J. B. Williams, representing the separate school trustees of Chatham, wrote to Hon. S. B. Harrison, Chairman of the Committee of Public Instruction, protesting that their school had received no allotment from a heavy school tax levied on all in the community. Although money was collected from both common and separate school supporters, all the funds went to a new free school.(29)

29. Replying on the 23rd of February in place of Harrison, Ryerson forwarded to Chatham a copy of a letter he had sent on the same subject to the separate school trustees at Belleville. The Catholic application was flatly rejected. It was the right of the municipality to dispose of its own money in its own way, and the government could exercise no supervision, Ryerson declared, adding that "much less could Government assume the right of requiring a municipality to appropriate such moneys to support the institutions or interests of particular religious persuasions".(30) If a religious group wished to separate itself from the majority school system, it must suffer accordingly, the Chief Superintendent intimated:

The school law provides for the equal protection of the peculiar religious rights and scruples of all religious persuasions; but if the members of any religious denomination in a municipality are not satisfied with the enjoyment of equal privileges with the members of other religious persuasions of their fellow-citizens, but insist on a school exclusively devoted to their own denominational interest, they cannot ask, upon any ground of constitutional right or justice between man and man, that public money, municipal authority and property, shall be employed to build up denominational interest as to promote interests which are common to all classes of citizens without regard to sect or party.(31)

30. Ryerson's attitude stung the Catholics of Upper Canada and accounts for a warmth in the following controversy that jars the modern reader. From the days of the first settlements, Catholics in Upper Canada had assumed that they should enjoy educational benefits in accordance with those granted to the whole province. As the mid-century arrived, however, and the government planned a new all-embracing educational programme, Catholics were told that unless they subscribed to this new idea and gave up their traditional principle of Catholic schools for Catholic children, they would be forced, although a poorer section of the populace, to help support the school system of their wealthier neighbours. Ryerson saw no injustice in this and thought that in the long run the common system would benefit the Catholic body without prejudicing their religion. To the Catholics, on the other hand, it was, as Charbonnel was to say, a "cruel persecution".

31. Before Ryerson's reply had been received, Bishop de Charbonnel had made an extensive tour of his diocese. He was displeased with the educational picture, and on the 20th of February he wrote to Ryerson that he failed to see a spirit of toleration for Catholic schools in many localities,

and in particular he recommended the case of the Chatham Catholics. When the bishop finally read Ryerson's answer to the Chatham trustees, he angrily wrote to the Chief Superintendent (7th March, 1852):

I hear from Chatham, subsequently to my appeal to your equity and your answer, that there the negroes are incomparably better treated than the Catholics; that the latter have received for their separate school, attended on an average by 46 pupils, only £4 10s., government money, and are offered so little out of about £300 taxes raised for the payment of teachers, to which the Catholics have much contributed as well as the high sum levied for the building of a new school-house; that in another mixed school the anti-Catholic history of England, by Goldsmith, is perused as a text book.

Again, Rev. dear Doctor, where is the equity of such a management? Where that liberal spirit professed in pamphlets, public speeches, reports &c? And am I not right to call our most deplorable system of education a regular disguised persecution? And still I have facts of a worse character.(32)

32. In his reply, Ryerson first dealt with the objection against Goldsmith's history. He pointed out that no child was required to use a book objected to by his parents, and that as a matter of fact the Council of Public Instruction had not recommended the work.(33) On this point, as on a number of others, Ryerson came out on top in his controversy with de Charbonnel, as he would a few years later with Rev. J. M. Bruyère. It was with a masterly use of his victories in such particulars that Ryerson achieved much of his devastating effect. However, since space prohibits further discussion of these particular grievances, this study will be confined to the more general issues.

33. Turning to the larger question of the principle of separate schools, Ryerson professed he regarded the recent demands from separate school supporters as "ominous of evil". While he thought that the Legislature might allow separate school supporters exemption from public school taxes, he felt there was a strong possibility the separate school would cease to exist. Therefore, he thought, there was no injustice in charging separate school supporters for the erection of public school houses.(34)

34. Bishop de Charbonnel returned with a blistering reply in which he described the mixed schools in the most opprobrious terms. Referring to the use of books such as Goldsmith's anti-Catholic history, Charbonnel maintained that the mere protection of Catholic students from being forced to use such books was not enough to recommend the new school system (March 24, 1852):

Therefore a Quaker book abusing baptism, a Baptist book abusing infants baptism, a Methodist book abusing the high Church, a Presbyterian book abusing episcopacy, an unitarian book abusing the Trinity of persons in God, a Socinian book abusing all Mysteries, all those books may be read in the same class room of your mixed schools as well as the anti-Catholic Goldsmith's history, and that legally, and of course without any *reasonable complaint*, because no pupil is forced to read the book objected by his parent, and thereby all children's religious persuasions are equally protected.

O Beautiful Protection! Beautiful harmony! O Admirable means of teaching God

and His ordinances! Admirable way of making children improve in religion, faith, piety, unity, charity, and in reading into the bargain!

And you are astonished, Rev. Doctor, at our demand of having nothing to do with such a chimera, such a mixture, such a regular School of Pyrrhonism, of indifference, of infidelity, and consequently of all vices and crimes! (35)

35. If the mixed schools were "without immediate danger on the treble part of teachers, books and fellow pupils for the respective faith of all the children, which is seldom the case in this sectarian country" he would "tolerate, even recommend them, through want of a better system", Charbonnel declared. However, he insisted that in such an eventuality he would have to be assured that children were instructed in religion at home or in church "because secular instruction without religious education is rather a scourge than a boon for a country". (36)

36. He concluded with the assertion that: "We must have and we will have the full management of our schools, as well as Protestants in Lower Canada; so the world of the 19th century will know that here as elsewhere Catholics, against the constitution of the country, against its best and most sacred interests are persecuted by the most cruel and hypocritical persecution." (37)

37. Ryerson, in his turn, indignantly denied that there was any "persecution" in the common school system and declared that he had always, and would always, administer the law in the strictest justice. The common school system, which had been in operation for ten years, was, he claimed:

. . . cordially approved of and supported by the late lamented Roman Catholic Bishop Power, which was never objected to, as far as I know, by a single Roman Catholic in Upper Canada, during the life of that excellent prelate and patriot, nor until a recent period. If your Lordship has thought proper, during the last twelve months to adopt a different course, and to introduce from the continent of Europe a new class of ideas and feelings among the Roman Catholics of Upper Canada, in regard to schools and our whole school system, I must still adhere to my frequent unqualified expressions of admiration at the opposite course pursued by your honoured and devoted predecessor, Bishop Power. (38)

The Chief Superintendent thought that the legal provision for separate schools was a mistake "in a popular system of common education like that of Upper Canada", but "finding such a provision in existence, and that parties concerned attached great importance to it, I have advocated its continuance, leaving separate schools to die out, not by force of legislative enactment, but under the influence of increasingly enlightened and enlarged views of Christian relations, rights and duties between different classes of the community." (39)

38. There is little point in describing the remaining letters in the controversy since the early letters clearly show the issues. However, much has been made of Charbonnel's remark in a later letter that he had become energetic in his correspondence only after eighteen months of "patient representations against a school system which my conscience, as a Catholic Bishop, rejects", and that "all my previous intercourse with you and the

Council of Public Instruction has been polite and Christian, and sometimes tolerant to an extent that I have been required to justify".(40) This "have been required to justify" clause has suggested to some that the bishop changed his policy because of "foreign" pressure. Clearly, Charbonnel here was using merely a rhetorical device, for his stand of 1852 represents no change in his own policy since his arrival, just as it was no change from the attitude of Bishops Macdonell and Power.¹

39. The 1852 agitation achieved important results, for on June 14th, 1853, a supplementary school Act was passed (16th and 17th Victoria, Ch. 185) which freed separate school supporters from paying public school rates and also authorized them to elect their own trustees. Separate school trustees were obliged to collect their own taxes and to give notification of those who were to be exempted from common school taxes.

40. Bishop de Charbonnel was jubilant over the new measure. In a pastoral letter he commended the Act and at the same time said that in districts where separate schools were impracticable, common schools could be attended by Catholic children providing their faith were protected. He welcomed the choosing of trustees by the parents. These trustees would represent the parents in the "most sacred" of their duties, and would "choose the teachers of your children, direct and discipline their schools, and promote their religious, intellectual and temporal welfare".(42)

41. In spite of this approbation, it was not long before it was seen that even with the 1853 Act the separate schools were operating under grave disabilities, for local common school trustees began to employ Catholic teachers, thus apparently depriving separate schools in their districts of the right to exist. As Charbonnel told Inspector General Hincks on August 2nd, 1853:

The Common School Trustees of Toronto just sent us an official declaration that we cannot claim a separate school when there is a Roman Catholic teacher; now they have placed two Roman Catholic teachers, where we have 7 schools and 600 children. Therefore those 7 schools will be deprived of all the pecuniary advantages of separate schools, and as they may place a third R. C. teacher, where we have our 3 other schools, and four hundred children we will be deprived of all . . . for our 10 schools and 1,000 children.

And as they may do the same wherever we would wish to have Sept. schools either in Toronto or in the country you at once (see) the consequence of your legislation.²(43)

¹In spite of the heat of the Ryerson-Charbonnel fight, the Chief Superintendent apparently respected the bishop. In 1858 Ryerson wrote: ". . . for Bishop Charbonnel, though a man of extreme views and impulsive temperament, is a sincere and generous man, above all low and mercenary views; and, least of all, a man who would utter what he knew to be false, or seek the destruction of others in order to elevate himself . . ." (41)

²In 1852 Ryerson admitted that a separate school would lose its right to exist if a teacher of the same religion as the dissenters were appointed to the common school.(44) However, in 1855 he denied this. See letter of 4 January, 1855, to the trustees of the Protestant separate school at Osgoode: "when a separate school is *once established* I do not think its *continuance* depends upon the religious faith of the teacher of the common school." (45)

42. Such action on the part of local trustees, and other handicaps which separate schools experienced, disillusioned Catholics with the 1853 Act. In many cases adjustments were obtained, but only after tempers had been aroused and nerves frayed.(46) Charbonnel and his followers began in the autumn of 1853 an agitation to deprive common school trustees of any power of supervision over separate schools. On the 7th of October, 1853, the Bishop of Toronto told Inspector General Hincks that:

. . . the Supplementary School Act does not and will never work at all unless the separate schools be placed under the exclusive authority of the Chief Superintendent, Christian or Jew, no matter, provided he be himself under the immediate control of the government.(47)

Because of the attitude of local school boards, important centres remained without separate schools, Charbonnel informed Vicar-General Rev. C. F. Cazeau, of Quebec, on the 29th of April, 1854.

Judge of the benefits of that law with its fetters and shackles . . . Hamilton, London, Dundas, St. Catharines, Brantford and other important places have been unable to obtain separate schools, as for (the) great many inferior localities, it was useless to think of it.(48)

43. This protest was followed in June, 1854, with a petition from eight Canadian bishops to the Governor-General asking "aid and protection to enable them to obtain a just and equitable law in favour of separate schools". The bishops claimed they wanted no "exclusive privileges", but wanted only "that the law which governs the Separate Schools in favour of the Protestants of Lower Canada, may be put in force in favour of the Catholics of Upper Canada".(49)

44. Following these appeals, the Canadian Legislature passed a new separate school Act in 1855 (18 Victoria, Ch. 131). This Bill, known as the Taché Act, removed the danger of partiality on the part of common school trustees and simplified the procedure in establishing separate schools (Sections 2 to 7). The imposing, levying, and collecting of school rates for separate schools was left to the separate school trustees (Section 8) and every person paying such rates was obliged to give annual notice of this fact to the clerk of the municipality (in which any separate school is situated). This would exempt the separate school supporters "from the payment of all rates imposed within such Ward or School Section for the support of Common Schools and of Common School Libraries for the year next following".

45. Apparently, Bishop de Charbonnel at first thought the Taché Act gave Catholics their due, but upon further thought felt that some last minute amendments were harmful to separate schools.(50) *The Mirror*, the Toronto Catholic newspaper, may have influenced the bishop when it complained that the Bill on its final reading left separate school supporters liable to assessment for common school projects in the following way: where no separate school existed, Catholics could be assessed on a long-term basis

for long-term fund-raising projects; but should a separate school be formed later, the Catholic ratepayers were not exonerated from their long-term assessment.(51) The paper later explained that:

. . . the XIIth clause in the present Separate School Act, compels Catholics, in the only places wherein their schools are in a flourishing condition, Toronto, Guelph, Adjala, Brantford &c., to be taxed for the maintenance of other schools, across the threshold of which their children never have nor never will enter.(52)

46. *The Mirror* also found it a serious grievance that separate school supporters from different sections could not unite and thus free themselves from common school rates. In February, 1856, an editorial pointed out that parents living in township A and sending children to a separate school in township B were not exempt from common school assessments in township A.(53) In April, the paper fiercely denounced the "education department" for not allowing two or more school sections to unite in establishing a separate school:

Undying hatred and hostility are the grand principles and bases of all judicial decrees issuing from that Department in our regard. The law itself is first so framed as to present almost insurmountable difficulties in any efforts to carry it into effect; and next, when a question of interpretation arises, the Department decision is almost certain to be adverse to the Catholic side.(54)

47. Bishop de Charbonnel, who had seen his hopes frustrated in 1853 and again in 1855, entered into this new struggle armed with a fiery temper and a determination to use all means at his command to fulfil his long wish that Catholic schools be placed on an equitable basis. For him, Catholic schools were essential to the preservation of the Catholic faith and, consequently, the support of these schools was a matter of the gravest urgency. If political pressure and ecclesiastical censure were necessary to preserve the tradition of Catholic education, he would not hesitate to use these methods.

48. On the 17th of November, 1855, Charbonnel penned this warm letter to the priests in Renfrew:

You know the contaminations which have most shamefully polluted the 3rd reading of the last Act on Separate Schools and how that new piece of infamy took place, those principle injustices are: 1. The annual declaration of the supporters of sep. schools to the clerk of the municipality; 2. The exclusion of school supporters from the benefit of publick [sic] assessment and collection for school purposes; 3. The obligation of Roman Catholics to contribute to Protestant Schools, school-houses & libraries; 4. Our exclusion from all school-funds, but the Government grant; 5. The nullity of the election of trustees, when within two months the separate school is not established; 6. The multiplicity of school trustees and wards in cities and towns. None of those fetters shackle protestants in Lower Canada.

The only means against that tyrannical persecution for Catholics who have some blood in their veins is to send to the parliament members pledged in behalf of our most sacred right, religious liberty and civil equality.(55)

49. Charbonnel followed this with his famous Lenten Pastoral:

Catholic electors in this country who do not use their electoral power in behalf of Separate Schools are . . . guilty of mortal sin. Likewise parents not making

the sacrifices necessary to secure such schools, or sending their children to mixed schools.

Moreover, the Confessor who would give absolution to such parents, electors, or legislators as support mixed schools to the prejudice of separate schools would be guilty of mortal sin. (56)

50. The bishop's extreme stand gave Ryerson a propaganda weapon which he used with great effect. Now the Chief Superintendent had an opportunity to refurbish his well-worn charges against the new "foreign" element upsetting sweetness and progress in Upper Canada. On the 14th of January, 1857, Ryerson slashed back with what is probably his strongest denunciation of the attitude of the Catholic hierarchy:

The assumptions of this new foreign element in our country might not require public notice, were they confined to their unfortunate victims; but when they are made the cloak of assailing public law and its administration; when they presume to command, denounce in the Council Chamber of Government, and in the halls of Legislation, and give peremptory orders, enforced with pains and penalties, at every political, municipal and school election throughout Upper Canada; when they seek to defame and destroy every institution and agency for the diffusion of general education and knowledge, and even demand state support to teach that the great majority of the inhabitants of the state and their institutions are infidels and infidel agencies—enemies of God and man; when they become an active element of party in regard to every public man and every public question, and public measure, whether in the provincial government, or in the local municipality, and thus aim at controlling, or destroying every man, and every institution in the land,—they then reach a crisis of invasion which can no longer be evaded, but must be confronted by every man, of every rank and party, who values liberty of action, word, or thought, just government, and free institutions. (57)

51. In his Annual Report for 1856, Ryerson explained the opposition to his policies in this way:

No one can analyse the circumstances and character of those isolated but reiterated attacks upon our Public Schools and School System, without feeling that they originate in the same source and have a common object: the spirit of sectarian bigotry, against Catholic Christianity, the spirit of ecclesiastical despotism against public liberty and general knowledge, the spirit of individual selfishness against public patriotism and national progress. (58)

Later, on January 14th, 1858, in a confidential memorandum to Governor-General Sir Edmund Head, he maintained that in fact the Catholic minority in Upper Canada was better off in the matter of separate school legislation than the Protestant minority in Lower Canada. He said that the 1855 Taché Act was drawn up by the Catholic clergy and that the complaints of the clergy "against the provisions of their own Act" were understandable only when it was realized that their real aim was the "complete subversion of our National School System." (59)

52. If the Lower Canadian Protestants were more successful in operating their schools than the Catholics of Upper Canada, it was because the Protestant minority in Lower Canada was "more intelligent and wealthy"

than the Catholic minority in Upper Canada, and "know better how to proceed and manage their affairs", Ryerson declared, pointing out that:

. . . the Priests, who frequently assume the whole correspondence and management in Separate School matters, seem to possess little more practical talent and knowledge of legal modes of proceeding than those whom they influence to establish Separate Schools. And when, in some instances, I have had to point out their mistakes, and the necessity of their complying with the provisions of the Law, in order to share in the School Fund, and to secure exemption from the payment of Public School Rates, they have, (apparently to justify themselves in the eyes of their followers, and to seek occasion of attack upon the School System) assailed me by Letter, and sometimes in Newspapers for illiberally construing the Law, and endeavouring to retard the operations of Separate Schools, though I have, in all cases, given them the benefit of every legal doubt and have often overlooked more irregularities and defects in their Returns, than I have done in the Returns from the authorities of Public Schools . . . (60)

Separate schools by their very nature were bound to disintegrate, and thus the only hope for their advocates was the destruction of the common system, Ryerson concluded:

As long as the Public Schools are maintained, or rather as long as the hitherto acknowledged rights of Municipalities and individuals are protected, in regard to Schools, Separate Schools must be very feeble and inefficient in Upper Canada except in a few Cities and Towns, and in some of these they are very sickly. Hence, as the only means of succeeding in the new policy inaugurated by the Roman Catholic Bishops,—that of keeping their children and youth separate from Protestant children and youth,—they aim at subverting our Public School System . . . (61)

53. These were serious charges, but even if Ryerson himself were convinced of their truth, they failed to express the actual situation. While at times Catholic polemicists used vigorous terms in describing the mixed school system, they were careful to point out that their objections were to Catholics having to attend these schools rather than to the existence of the schools for Protestant children. And, as we have seen, the hierarchy permitted, and even encouraged, Catholic children to attend these schools where no Catholic school was available and when the faith of the Catholic children was not clearly endangered.

54. It may have been true that Catholic priests and school trustees were negligent in the necessary paper work, and that they were apt to allow their tempers to dictate public appeals rather than to amend their own errors. But the problem was much deeper. As we saw earlier, Catholics entertained concrete objections against the 1855 Taché Act as it was administered. The 1857 proposals for a new separate school Bill, from the Hon. John Elmsley, secretary of the Catholic separate school trustees, show the aims of the Catholic party.

55. Elmsley told Ryerson that the prohibition of Catholics from one school section uniting with another to form a separate school would, if not removed, ultimately destroy all separate schools. "Under the present law", Elmsley stated:

Catholics of neighbouring Common School Sections, although perhaps within a few paces of a Separate School House, cannot be exempted, unless they live within the Common School Section in which their Separate School is established. When the very scattered condition of our people is taken into consideration, this amounts, practically, to saying to them, that only about one-third and perhaps only one-fourth of them, in any given locality, can avail themselves of the provisions of the Law in that respect . . . (62)

56. A change in this provision, while beneficial to Catholics, would not harm the public schools, Elmsley continued:

I will understand the full value of the many objections urged by you; and among them that the withdrawal of certain numbers of Ratepayers, from the support of the Common Schools, might prejudice their efficiency, in any School Section, in which a Separate School might be proposed. In theory, this objection might have some force, but, in sober practice, we all well know that our people are, in general, Ratepayers to so small an amount, and are, moreover, so few in comparative numbers, that their withdrawal in a Body, at ever so short a notice, would but very seldom affect the Common School Fund, to any extent worth mentioning . . . (63)

There were other objections to the working of the 1855 Act, Elmsley added, such as difficulties experienced with local officials in forming a separate school and the lack of co-operation often shown by municipal clerks when tax exemptions were requested for separate school supporters:

Under the present Law, we are compelled to dance attendance upon Reeves and Chairmen of Boards; the former often miles and miles away from us, and to also take the chance of finding these Functionaries at home; and also in good humour; and we have found them also to be subject to all kinds of delays and objections to endorse our little paper, which the Law requires to be sent to Chief Superintendent. One of them had his ink frozen; and so he could not endorse the Document; and the person who presented it to him had to wait till a general thaw took place; (this actually occurred); . . . Another wanted time to reflect upon the matter, as it was quite new to him; another desired to consult his legal adviser, and so through endless, countless, trivial obstacles, all sufficiently annoying to deter any one, not in possession of indomitable perseverance, from pursuing the cause he had taken in hand . . . The Municipal Clerks put us also through a multitude of difficult postures and facings, before they will give us Certificates of Exemption; Chamberlains and Treasurers add their quota of annoyances before they will admit the identity of each Catholic claiming exemption and then a Protestant Landlord, and a Catholic Tenant, or vice versa, gives a world of trouble, mostly resulting in loss to the Separate School. Last, but not least, a slice is taken from us 'for the support of Common Schools, Common School Libraries, and the erection of School Houses commenced prior to the establishment of our Separate Schools', and then, if a School be not established within two months, the trustees become 'functus officio'. (64)

57. As a further provision, Elmsley asked that separate school trustees be allowed to collect taxes from all Roman Catholics in the school district in which the school was located. A Roman Catholic who wished to support the non-Catholic school would then have to notify the authorities of his dissent from the separate school. (65) Such a measure, while it would have given great aid to separate schools, was not insisted upon by the

Catholic group. While the annual notification on the part of separate school supporters was found a handicap, the proposed Scott Bill of 1860(66), and the Horan Bill of 1862, called for an original notification.(67)

58. It must be obvious from a study of the Catholic claims of 1850 that the difficulties under which separate schools operated were not solely the result of Catholic poverty and inefficiency. Catholics found real objections to the school Acts and to the policies of local officials, and it was hardly fair to ascribe their protests to a wish to destroy the common school system.

59. In spite of Ryerson's earlier attitude to Catholic agitation, in 1863 the united Legislature of Canada approved a new school Bill—*An Act to Restore to Roman Catholics in Upper Canada Certain Rights In Respect to Separate Schools* (26 Vict., Ch. 5). As the provisions of this Act have become the basis of the rights guaranteed by the Confederation agreement, separate treatment of the Act is warranted.

NOTES

1. *Charbonnel Papers*, Toronto Archdiocesan Archives, Charbonnel to the Sacred Congregation of Propaganda at Rome, May 18, 1852.
2. *Ibid.*, Charbonnel to Ryerson, May 22, 1852.
3. *Ibid.*
4. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. VI, p. 158.
5. *Ibid.*
6. *Ibid.*, Vol. VII, p. 167.
7. *Ibid.*, Vol. XIII, p. 214.
8. *Ibid.*, Vol. X, p. 90, Ryerson to Hon. Francis Hincks and Dr. John Rolph, 1 August, 1851.
9. *Ibid.*, Vol. XII, p. 29.
10. *Ibid.*, Vol. XXVII, p. 254.
11. *Ibid.*
12. *Charbonnel Papers*.
13. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. VIII, p. 110.
14. *Hodgins Papers*, Archives of Ontario.
15. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. IX, p. 1.
16. Miscellaneous Papers, Toronto Archdiocesan Archives.
17. *Lynch Papers*, Toronto Archdiocesan Archives, Bishop Lynch to "My Dear Lord Archbishop", June 7, 1864.
18. *Charbonnel Papers*, Circular of the Bishop of Toronto to his clergy, January 17, 1855. See also letter from Charbonnel to the Archbishop of Vienna and Munich, February 15, 1852.
19. *Ibid.*, Charbonnel to the Mayor of Toronto, March 2, 1855.
20. *Ibid.* See also letter of Charbonnel to the Archbishop of Dublin, November 14, 1850: "My desire is to trust to them [Ladies of Loretto] the whole education of the City of Toronto and as much as possible that of the most important places of the Diocese."
21. See Hodgins, *The Legislation and History of Separate Schools in Upper Canada*, p. 53. Ryerson was apparently in error when he reported that the Catholics in Toronto had applied for a "second" school. They had already two schools and had asked for a third.

22. *Charbonnel Papers*, Charbonnel to the "City Superintendent of Common Schools of Ontario" October 14, 1850.
23. Hodgins, *Legislation and History of Separate Schools*, pp. 54, 55.
24. *Charbonnel Papers*.
25. *Ibid.*, Charbonnel's letter to Hincks, November 1, 1851. Charbonnel sent a similar letter to Lord Elgin, Governor-General, on the 25th of March, 1852, (*ibid.*).
26. Miscellaneous Papers, Toronto Archdiocesan Archives.
27. *Charbonnel Papers*.
28. Miscellaneous Papers, Toronto Archdiocesan Archives.
29. *Copies of Correspondence Between the Roman Catholic Bishop of Toronto and the Chief Superintendent of Schools*, printed by Order of the Legislative Assembly, Quebec, 1852, Appendix, p. 31.
30. *Ibid.*, Appendix, p. 39.
31. *Ibid.*, p. 7.
32. *Ibid.*
33. *Ibid.*
34. *Ibid.*, pp. 8, 9.
35. *Charbonnel Papers*.
36. *Ibid.*
37. *Ibid.*
38. *Copies of Correspondence*, pp. 11, 12.
39. *Ibid.*, p. 12.
40. *Ibid.*, p. 19.
41. Egerton Ryerson, *Dr. Ryerson's Letters in Reply to the Attacks of the Hon. George Brown*, Toronto, 1859, p. 72.
42. *Charbonnel Papers*.
43. *Ibid.*
44. *Copies of Correspondence*, p. 8.
45. *Ibid.*, p. 163.
46. See *The Mirror of Toronto*, May 5, 1854; July 21, 1854, and August 25, 1854.
47. *Charbonnel Papers*, Bishop Charbonnel to Inspector Hincks, October 7, 1853. Charbonnel sent a similar request to Hincks on the 19th of October, 1853.
48. *Ibid.*
49. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XI, p. 109. The Legislature in the autumn of 1854 heard many petitions on behalf of separate schools; see p. 110.
50. *Hodgins Papers*, see J. A. Macdonald to Ryerson, June 8, 1855.
51. *The Mirror*, June 29, 1855.
52. *Ibid.*, June 20, 1856.
53. *Ibid.*, February 15, 1856.
54. *Ibid.*, April 4, 1856.
55. *Charbonnel Papers*.
56. *The Mirror*, January 25, 1856.
57. Ryerson, *Replies to the Attacks of Foreign Ecclesiastics*, p. 69.
58. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XIII, p. 61.
59. *Ibid.*, p. 252.
60. *Ibid.*, pp. 253, 254.
61. *Ibid.*, p. 254. Since the ground has been covered in other controversies already discussed, we have not included the bitter controversy of December, 1856, between Rev. J. M. Bruyère, rector of St. Michael's Cathedral, and Ryerson over the disposition of clergy reserve funds. See *ibid.*, pp. 1-12.

- 62. *Ibid.*, p. 166.
- 63. *Ibid.*
- 64. *Ibid.*, pp. 167-168.
- 65. *Ibid.*, p. 170.
- 66. *Ibid.*, Vol. XV, p. 25.
- 67. *Ibid.*, Vol. XVII, pp. 196, 197.

V. THE CONFEDERATION AGREEMENT

1. Ryerson himself gave the best answers to his own charges that the separate school agitators had no ground for complaint and sought only to subvert the common school system. In the late 1850's and early 1860's, the Chief Superintendent dropped his former adamant attitude and sought to ease the restrictions against separate school supporters.

2. An indication of his softening can be found in his Annual Report for 1857. Here, he denied that the separate school supporters had abused or perverted the provisions of separate school legislation. "These parties", Ryerson observed, "have made no efforts during the year to destroy the Public School System of this Province, but have applied themselves to the support of Separate Schools with more success than have the Supporters of Dissident Schools in Lower Canada, although the Protestants in Lower Canada are more numerous and wealthy than are the Roman Catholics of Upper Canada."¹(1)

3. While he still thought the original introduction of the separate school principle a mistake, he held that it would be wrong now to abolish the law in their regard. If separate schools had injured the common school system, then that might give occasion for their removal, he believed. In fact, however, "the General School System has advanced more rapidly in Upper Canada than in any other Country, and more rapidly, since 1850, than ever before". Besides, neither justice nor precedent would permit the "abolition of Corporate rights and powers, which they [the separate school supporters] have enjoyed for nearly twenty years". Ryerson added that he thought "the faith of Parliament should be maintained with those parties, who have been incorporated and enabled to establish Denominational Schools, as well as with those who have been incorporated and enabled to establish and maintain Denominational Colleges".(2)

4. In January, 1858, he declared that while in principle the existing separate school legislation was founded on justice and "should remain inviolate" yet the "modes of proceeding" should be "rendered as simple

¹Such an amazing change in Ryerson's attitude causes one to wonder, once again, which Ryerson are we to believe—the denouncer or the protector of separate schools?—the proponent of a "basically Christian" educational system, or the man who said the duty of the state was to provide only secular education?—the advocate of educational uniformity or the friend of educational pluralism? Ryerson can be explained only when it is remembered that his dominant idea and purpose was his educational system, and he was ready to shift his position to protect this one great idea. At the same time he was a sincere Christian, tolerant, and a nineteenth-century "liberal".

and as convenient as possible for all parties concerned, and should be considered from time to time in the most earnest and liberal spirit with that view".(3)

5. Following these intentions, in 1862 Ryerson moved to amend some of the provisions of the 1855 Act which Catholics had found objectionable. He drew up a draft Bill which included an enactment to allow separate school supporters in different sections to unite. Trustees were not to give their returns on oath, nor were separate school supporters to be obliged to submit annual notifications to the municipal clerk.(4) These enactments were only to restore to separate school supporters rights of which the Taché Act had deprived them, he said, explaining that "the framers of the Roman Catholic School Act of 1855 aimed to assimilate the Separate School Law of Upper Canada, with the Dissentient School Law of Lower Canada, but they were ignorant of the effect of some of the provisions of their Act, arising from the Municipal System of Upper Canada, in connection with School Sections, Assessments, etcetera".(5)

6. The actual Act of 1863 was not that drafted by the Chief Superintendent, but was drawn up by R. W. Scott, a Roman Catholic legislator. The Bill, as finally presented, was amended upon Ryerson's suggestions, and it is this Act which was recognized as the basis of separate school "rights" in the Confederation Agreement.

7. There has been some controversy as to whether or not the Roman Catholic authorities accepted the 1863 Act as "final".(6) According to Ryerson, a meeting was held, prior to the Bill's passage, between Scott, the sponsor of it, Very Rev. Vicar-General C. F. Cazeau, and Very Rev. Vicar-General Angus Macdonell on the one hand, representing the Catholic Church, and Ryerson, on the other. Ryerson relates that he told Scott that unless he was assured that the measure was to be regarded as a final settlement of the question by the authorities of the Roman Catholic Church, he would try to prevent its passage. The Catholic priests thereupon "noddled assent" to each section of the amended draft.(7) The account concludes with this assertion:

I affirm, therefore, that the passage of the Separate School Act of 1863, was an Honourable Compact between all parties concerned, for the final settlement of that question; and that the renewed agitation of it, in less than two years, is not only a violation of that Compact, but a warning to the people of Upper Canada, that if they are compelled again to legislate on the subject, their peace, and the safety of their institutions will require them to sweep the last vestiges of the Separate School law from their statute book, and place all Religious Persuasions in the same relation of equality to their Schools as exists in the New England States, and in the neighbouring State of New York . . .(8)

8. When Ryerson made this public, in 1865, the three Catholics concerned sent a letter to the *Globe* denying that any of them had been deputed by the Catholic bishops to come to an understanding with the Chief Superintendent, and that Scott and the Vicars-General had "reluctantly"

accepted the amended measure on their own responsibility as an "improvement" on the 1855 Act, but it was not considered a final settlement, rather it was an "instalment" on what they believed the Catholics of Upper Canada were entitled to.(9)

9. In reply, Ryerson repeated his account of the meeting and declared that he would not have agreed to the meeting in the first place if the clergy present had not, in fact, considered themselves as representatives of the hierarchy, nor would he have assented to the Bill if he had not thought it would end further agitation.(10)

10. What judgment is the historian to make in this matter? While it is understandable that Ryerson wanted no repetition of the past attacks on his school system, nevertheless his obdurate and sterile stand on the "finality" of the 1863 Act is open to serious objections. Legally, of course, none of the parties was capable of making a "compact". Certainly Ryerson could not be a party; in his capacity as Chief Superintendent of Education, he could not be a bargaining party with Catholic representatives, since he represented separate school supporters as much as he represented Upper Canadian Protestants.

11. Whether or not the Vicars-General present represented the Catholic bishops of Canada on this Bill is also questionable. Even though they may have been in Quebec to watch political developments for the hierarchy, and may have been authorized to assent to amendments to separate school legislation, a more concrete authorization would be required to establish that the bishops of Canada agreed to a measure which would be permanent and binding for all time. However, the bishops themselves were not in a position to make a compact, for the only parties on the Catholic side in a position to assent to a final settlement would have been the separate school supporters themselves. While the hierarchy has guided Upper Canadian Catholics in school matters, separate schools are formed by, and for, separate school ratepayers, not by the bishops.

12. The most questionable part of Ryerson's stand was his position of immutability, strangely inconsistent with his whole career of furthering educational progress. Conditions change, as no one knew better than Ryerson. To adhere to the letter of the law would be to deprive separate school supporters of changes enjoyed by the remaining branch of the common school system. A rigid adherence to the 1863 Act in letter, but not in spirit, rather than prevent agitation would, in its failure to acknowledge shifting circumstances, arouse resentment and re-open a regrettable controversy.

13. J. H. Putman, in *Egerton Ryerson and Education in Upper Canada*, has expressed the weakness in Ryerson's position:

Ryerson claimed that he agreed to the amended Scott Bill only on the distinct understanding that it was to be a finality in Separate School legislation. He also claimed that the Roman Catholic bishops of Quebec, Kingston and Toronto accepted the Bill as a final settlement. But nothing is final in legislation, and Dr.

Ryerson ought to have known that. Legislation is as much the result of a process of evolution as any other institution of human society and no three or four men, whether priests or laymen could speak authoritatively and finally for the thousands of Roman Catholics in Upper Canada. (11)

14. Whether it is to be regarded as a "final settlement" or not, at least by the provisions of the British North America Act it would not be legal to deprive Catholics of any of the benefits of the 1863 Act. Section 93(1) of the British North America Act of 1867 reads that:

In and for each Province, the Legislature may exclusively make laws in relation to education, subject, and according to the following provisions:—

1. Nothing in any such Law shall prejudicially affect any right, or privilege, with respect to Denominational Schools, which any class of persons have by Law in the Province at the Union.

Legally, Catholics may be confined to the strict wording of the 1863 Act, but morally, as we shall show, their position should be much happier. Because of a generally strict following of the letter of the law in legal decisions, Catholics in Upper Canada do not today enjoy the same benefits in education that they did at the time of Confederation.

15. The exact provisions of the 1863 Act, together with certain minor changes in application, have been discussed at sufficient length in other reports to make unnecessary their repetition here; our task has been confined to uncovering new evidence and re-assessing old. However, in view of the changing nature of the rural school, Section 19 of the 1863 Act deserves careful and enlightened attention. This Section reads: "No person shall be deemed a supporter of any Separate School unless he resides within three miles (in a direct line) of the Site of the School House."

16. At the time of the passage of this Act, Section 19 was considered a boon for separate school supporters. Today it is a considerable restriction and thus, in following the letter of the law, the spirit and its principles are destroyed. With the change in modes of transportation and the development of the larger and more efficient rural school to serve a larger area, Section 19 prevents separate schools in country districts from keeping pace with the times. In 1863 no child from more than three miles away from a school could possibly attend that school. Today the use of the school bus has completely altered the picture.

17. That Section 19 was considered reasonable at the time of its passage is indicated in a letter sent, in 1865, to Bishop Lynch from Rev. George R. Northgraves, parish priest at Barrie. Father Northgraves stated that:

The 3 miles clause is not the objectionable part of Scott's bill . . . I consider a limit to separate school supporters fair and 3 miles are practically quite sufficient. Some beyond 3 miles may use the separate schools—but more within 3 miles cannot . . . 3 miles in a straight line in practice amounts to 4 or 5 miles, for the roads are very seldom straight. (12)

Ryerson himself thought the three mile provision fair to separate school supporters. In 1865, in answer to certain Catholic complaints, he said that:

Any man of common sense, much more a jurist, will at once see from this clause of the Act, that any Separate School division must be six miles in diameter, or eighteen miles in circumference,—dimensions beyond those of any Common School Section, or union of Sections, that I know of in all Upper Canada . . . (13)

Three years earlier, when the 1863 Act was in its formative stages, the Chief Superintendent explained the purpose of the three-mile provision was to ensure that only those who were close enough to send children to a separate school should be supporters of that school:

But the Bill, as reported by the Select Committee, permitted Trustees of Separate School Sections to form Union Sections to any extent they might please. To this I objected and insisted that the ratepaying parents should be the judges as to forming Union Sections for Separate Schools, as well as for Common Schools; and, of course, they would not agree to any Union Section so large as to prevent their children from attending the School, and especially as the Bill provided (as amended by the Committee,) that no one should be recognized as a Supporter of a Separate School who should reside more than three miles from it. My amendment was admitted. (14)

18. In the light of the intentions of the framers of the 1863 Act, it obviously would be unfair to restrict Catholics today to the three-mile limit. If separate school supporters in rural areas have found it necessary to establish “dummy schools”, they are only complying with the spirit of separate school legislation.

19. Similarly, in permitting separate schools in unorganized areas, no principle of 1863 has been violated because the question did not really arise at that time. In the same way, a more adequate arrangement for the distribution of Corporation taxes would preserve the principles behind the 1863 Act since, at the time of its passage, Corporation taxes were not an issue and it was considered that separate school supporters would undergo no financial hardship by the distribution of tax moneys. Today, altered circumstances have made that hardship very real.¹

20. Since the 1863 Act did not meet the full demands of the Catholics and since changing conditions have served further to hinder the unhampered operation of separate schools, it is not surprising that the famous “finality” measure has not ended separate school agitation.

21. When the reasons for the separate school controversy in the 1850's are considered, Ryerson's effrontery in disposing of the agitation in a superficial way must be regarded as misleading. In accounting for the agitation, Ryerson told the Governor-General that:

It is worthy of remark that, on the passing of each of the three Acts, (1850, 1853, and 1855), amending the Law, in regard to Separate Schools, the Roman Catholic Bishop of Toronto and the Roman Catholic newspaper organs expressed their entire satisfaction with them, (at the time) but afterwards complained of them, when it was found that they did not accomplish the object [desired] . . . (15)

¹Corporation taxes were discussed by representatives of Protestant and Catholic minorities in 1865 and 1866, but this item was insignificant in that period as contrasted with the situation today.

Such agitation, Ryerson thought, was dangerous and unreasonable.¹ Thus, he wanted the 1863 Act to end the possibility of further agitation, and held out a grave threat if his wishes in this matter were not respected. In a paper on the 1865 controversy he stated:

I have ever regarded the existence of the Separate School provisions of the Law in the light of a compact, commencing with the Union of the Canadas; and as such, I have endeavoured, in behalf of the public, to maintain it faithfully and liberally. But, if the Supporters of Separate Schools continue to violate that compact, as they have done repeatedly, by denouncing it, and demanding its modification and extension, then they forfeit all right to the original terms and conditions of it, and reduce the whole question to one of expediency . . .

I think no one will maintain that Separate Schools are expedient for the interests of the State . . . (17)

22. This attitude can only be regarded as a cavalier treatment of a complex problem. As Ryerson himself had admitted in 1862, separate school supporters had suffered real grievances, yet, in his public controversies over Catholic agitations, he suggested that the complaints were the result only of caprice or ill-will.

23. It has been demonstrated in this study that the major separate school agitations were grounded in important causes. After the 1850 Act, separate school supporters were taxed not only for their own schools, but were liable to public school assessments as well.² This grievance was remedied, after the 1852 protests, by the supplementary Act of 1853. However, it was discovered that, in the operation of the 1853 Act, local officials were blocking the formation of separate schools and were attempting to cause the closure of some of those already in existence. It was hoped that the 1855 Taché Act would remedy these complaints but, as Ryerson pointed out, only new objections were added. For the Chief Superintendent to suggest in 1865 that the energetic separate school protests of the Catholics had resulted from malevolence was as inaccurate and unfair as it was unkind.

24. The question still remains: What caused the renewed agitation on behalf of separate schools from 1864 until 1866? Ryerson declared in 1865 that "it is said" the demands from Upper Canadian Catholics were caused by similar demands from certain Lower Canadian Protestants for amended separate (dissentient) school laws,(19) and added at another time that Catholics in Upper Canada could not be blamed for wanting the same privileges as Lower Canadian Protestants:

I may remark that no one can reasonably blame Roman Catholics in Upper Canada for desiring any privileges granted to Protestants in Lower Canada, other things being equal; but that is a very different thing from a crusade agitation against the Separate School Act of 1863 . . . (20)

¹As late as 1865 Ryerson declared that the agitation following the 1855 Taché Act was "causeless".(16) Yet, in 1862 Ryerson had admitted the justice of Catholic complaints! Again one wonders which Ryerson is to be believed.

²Ryerson early in 1853 actually said that the law did not intend to place separate schools upon an equal footing with public schools.(18)

25. As schemes for Confederation were considered, the minorities in both the Canadas were quite naturally anxious to establish their rights, both fearing that the religious majority in each province might harm the minority school system once the legislative union was ended. Hitherto, the Catholic legislators from Lower Canada had to pay heed to Protestants from Upper Canada and, in the same way, Upper Canadian Catholics looked for protection to their religious confreres in Lower Canada.

26. The Confederation proposals eventually accepted had placed education in the provincial realm. To satisfy the religious minorities the following proposal was included:

The Local Legislature shall have power to make laws respecting the following subjects:

6. Education; saving the rights and privileges which the Protestant or Catholic minority in both Canadas may possess as to their denominational schools, at the time when the union goes into operation. (21)

The government, in the person of Finance Minister A. T. Galt, had promised Lower Canadian Protestants that it would bring down amendments which would improve school legislation for them prior to Confederation.(22) It followed naturally, as Ryerson admitted, for Upper Canadian Catholics to request similar amendments.

27. In December, 1864, Bishop Lynch of Toronto wrote to John A. Macdonald, that he was:

. . . glad to find that the Catholic minority of Upper Canada is put in the balance as regards religion and education, against the Protestant minority of Lower Canada. We will ask no right or privileges for ourselves that we will not see with pleasure granted to others. (23)

In February and March, 1865, Roman Catholics from Upper Canada presented numerous petitions to the Legislature requesting that, in the event of Confederation, Catholics in Upper Canada be granted the same rights as the Protestant minority in Lower Canada.(24)

28. The question arose a number of times in these months during the Confederation debates in the Legislative Assembly and Legislative Council. It was in one of the early debates in the Legislative Assembly that Hon. T. D'Arcy McGee, Minister of Agriculture (Montreal West), and a Catholic, made his much-quoted remarks supporting the 1863 Act as "final". However, his observations, when quoted in their proper context, cast a different light on McGee's views than that given in the historical summary contained in the Majority Report of the Hope Commission;¹ while McGee thought that the 1863 Act was final, he wanted Catholics of Upper Canada to benefit from any measures given to the Protestant minority of Lower Canada. McGee declared:

¹See Chapter XVIII of the *Report of The Royal Commission on Education in Ontario*, 1950.

To close this topic, I have no doubt whatever, with a good deal of moderation and a proper degree of firmness, all that the Protestant minority in Lower Canada can require, by way of security to their educational system, will be cheerfully granted to them by this House. I, for one, as a Roman Catholic, will cordially second and support any such amendments, properly framed. I will merely add in relation to an observation of my friend (Hon. George Brown) last night on the subject of the Catholic Separate Schools of Upper Canada, that I accepted for my own part, as a finality, the amended act of 1863. I did so because it granted all the petitioners asked, and I think they ought to be satisfied. I will be no party to the re-opening of the question; but I say this, that if there are to be any special guarantees or grants extended to the Protestant minority of Lower Canada, I think the Catholic minority in Upper Canada ought to be placed in precisely the same position—neither better nor worse. (25)

29. Other Catholics from Lower Canada also insisted that the Catholic minority of Upper Canada should be granted privileges similar to those given, or to be given, to Lower Canadian Protestants. Hon. L. A. Oliver (De Lanaudière) declared in the Legislative Council that he had:

... no objection, whatever, to grant to the Protestants of Lower Canada, for all future time, the rights they now enjoy, or any other rights and guarantees which may be deemed reasonable and equitable, but I cannot vote to adopt the resolutions until I am informed whether the Roman Catholics of the west are to be dealt with in the same manner. (26)

30. Hon. J. O. Bureau (De Lorimer) stated in the Legislative Council that while the Protestant minority of Lower Canada had no grievances from educational legislation, the same was not true for the Catholic minority in Upper Canada. (27)

31. Praise for the liberal attitude of French Catholics in Lower Canada came from an English-speaking Protestant, Hon. John Rose (Montreal Centre). Speaking in the Legislative Council, Rose recalled that the Catholic majority in Lower Canada had always been most generous to the Protestant minority, and he felt that even now they would grant the modifications in the education laws demanded by the Protestant school supporters. The obstructors to these reforms were the Protestants of Upper Canada who were reluctant to grant similar changes to the Catholic minority there. Rose asserted:

I believe this is the first time almost in the history of Lower Canada—and I call the attention of my hon. friends from Upper Canada to the fact—that there has been any excitement, or agitation on the part of the English Protestant population of Lower Canada in reference to the common school question . . . I am not aware that there has ever been any attempt in Lower Canada to deprive the minority of their just rights in respect to the education of their youth . . . Now we, the English Protestant minority of Lower Canada, cannot forget that whatever right of separate education we have was accorded to us in the most unrestricted way before the union of the provinces, when we were in a minority and entirely in the hands of the French population. We cannot forget that in no way was there any attempt to prevent us educating our children in the manner we saw fit and deemed best; and I would be untrue to what is just if I forgot to state that the

distribution of State funds for educational purposes was made in such a way as to cause no complaint on the part of the minority. I believe we have always had our fair share of the public grants in so far as the French element could control them, and not only the liberty, but every facility, for the establishment of separate dissentient schools wherever they were deemed desirable. Now, we cannot forget that in the past this liberality has been shown to us, and that whatever we desired of the French majority in respect to education, they were, if it was at all reasonable, willing to concede.

We have thus, in this also, the guarantee of the past that nothing will be done in the future unduly to interfere with our rights and interests as regards education, and I believe that everything we desire will be as freely given by the Local Legislature as it was before the union of the Canadas. But from whence comes the practical difficulty of dealing with the question at the present moment? We should not forget that it does not come from our French-Canadian brethren in Lower Canada, but that it arises in this way—and I speak as one who has watched the course of events and the opinion of the country upon the subject—that the Protestant majority in Upper Canada are indisposed to disturb the settlement made a couple of years ago, with regard to separate schools, and rather to hope that the French majority in Lower Canada should concede to the English Protestant minority there, nothing more than is given to the minority in the other section of the province. (28)

32. Rose continued with a summation of the demands of the Lower Canadian Protestants. They included the right of non-resident proprietors to say to which school system their taxes would go; the distribution of taxes from incorporated companies; and a more direct control over Protestant schools by Protestants. (29)

33. Replying to Rose, Hon. G. E. Cartier, Attorney General East (Montreal East), promised that the government would accede to all these requests. (30)

34. Since the government had committed itself to grant the demands of Lower Canadian Protestants, it was asked whether the same would be done for Upper Canadian Catholics. The government side-stepped the question with such fancy footwork that Catholics were given hope without the government actually having said what it would do. After Cartier had replied to Rose, Hon. J. S. Macdonald, (Cornwall) asked:

While the government is in a communicative mood—I think it is of some importance that we should know whether it is the intention of the government to extend the same rights and privileges to the Catholic minority of Upper Canada that are to be given to the Protestants of Lower Canada?

35. Cartier answered: "I cannot do my own work and the work of others. The Hon. Attorney General for Upper Canada is not present, but I have no doubt that on some future occasion he will be able to answer my friend from Cornwall."

36. To this Macdonald countered: "In the absence of the Hon. Attorney General West, perhaps the Hon. President of the Council will be kind enough to give the desired information?"

37. The President of the Executive Council, Hon. George Brown, of Toronto, editor of the *Globe* and long a bitter opponent of separate schools, was in a ticklish position, but he was equal to the occasion as he replied: "If my hon. friend wants an answer from me, I can only say that the provisions of the School bill relating to Upper Canada have not yet been considered by the government. As soon as a bill is framed there will be no delay in laying it before the House."

38. The issue was avoided for the moment, but Lower Canadian Catholics were not sure of the government's intentions. Hon. Charles Alleyne, (Quebec West) closed debate on the subject for that day with this remark: "I sincerely hope that the government feel disposed to grant to the Catholics of Upper Canada the same privileges they have just promised to the Protestants of Lower Canada." (31)

39. Eventually, John A. Macdonald, Attorney-General Canada West, would have to answer for the government. While he had no desire to stir up opposition from the anti-Catholic element in Upper Canada, he did not want Confederation to suffer because of the fears of Lower Canadian Catholic legislators for the religious minority in the neighbouring province. Nor did Macdonald want to lose the support of the strong Catholic minority in Upper Canada. Apparently Macdonald had held out hope to this group, for on February 25th, 1865, J. G. Moylan, Catholic newspaperman, wrote to Bishop Lynch:

I heard within the hour a scrap of information which I know you will be gratified to learn. Mr. Recorder O'Reilley of Kingston has told me that he and Vicar General Macdonell had an interview with Attorney Gen. Macdonald who gave them the fullest assurance that the Catholic minority of U Canada will be placed in *every respect* on the same footing with the Protestants of Lower Canada. The Ministry desire this to be kept as private as possible. (32)

40. On May 9th, 1864, Macdonald himself had written this private note to Bishop Lynch:

I have to acknowledge the receipt of your note of the 29th from me by Mr. Moylan.

I have forwarded his views as much as possible, & I believe he is satisfied of my desire to do so. I fully appreciate his services to the cause of Constitutional Government and shall endeavour to strengthen his hands. (33)

41. When finally he faced the Legislature, Attorney General Macdonald avoided voicing the government's decision by saying that after the members approved the Confederation proposals the government would present them to the British government and then return to take up what remained of the Confederation scheme—such as the constitution of the local governments and the school question. (34)

42. There the question remained, but on March 13th, 1865, just prior to the acceptance of the Confederation proposals, François Bourassa (St. John) moved this amendment in the Legislative Assembly:

That the following words be added to the original motion: "And that it be an instruction to the said Committee to provide that the Roman Catholic minority of Upper Canada be placed on the same footing as the Protestant minority of Lower Canada, under the local governments of the Confederation of the Provinces of British North America." (35)

43. The amendment was defeated eighty-five to twenty. This has been taken to show the opposition of the legislators to the idea proposed. Such was not the case, for among those voting against the measure were those who had expressed themselves strongly in favour of its principles, as for example D'Arcy McGee and Alleyn. The truth is that the vote was determined largely upon the lines of those in favour of Confederation and those against, for, as Hon. Thomas Bennett (Eastern) had told the Legislative Council on February 15th, 1865:

I have no doubt it is the opinion of every man—even of the delegates who framed these resolutions—that if he had the power he would change them in some particular. If I had the power I have no hesitation saying that I would change them; but we must take them as a whole or reject them altogether. (36)

44. After the Confederation proposals were approved, legislators were left with the opportunity of amending the school laws in 1866. On the 3rd of August of that year, Robert Bell introduced a Bill to amend the school law for Upper Canadian Catholics. However, on the 6th of August the Bill was ordered withdrawn after Ryerson had voiced indignant protests. The draft Bill called for reforms similar to those demanded in 1865 by Hon. John Rose for Lower Canadian Protestants.

45. Among the sections requested in the Bell measure were those providing for the use of the public tax rolls; the permission of non-resident Catholics to pay taxes to a separate school; a method of distributing corporation taxes according to school attendance; provincial grants for "superior education"—universities, classical and industrial colleges, grammar schools and seminaries, to be divided between Protestants and Catholics according to population; and greater control by Catholics in the administration of education. (37)

46. Ryerson described the Bill as "outrageous" in a letter on August 4th, to Hon. William McDougall, provincial secretary. Repeating his story of the "finality bill", he declared that "nothing can be more dishonourable and truthless, than for either party now to vary that settlement of the question, and seek to subvert it."

47. The settlement of the school law for Upper Canada had nothing to do with the picture in Lower Canada, he felt, adding:

The School Question between Roman Catholics and Protestants in Lower Canada, is peculiar to Lower Canada, having nothing analogous in Upper Canada, except that there are Roman Catholics and Protestants here, as well as there. The Roman Catholics there being in the majority have resolved that the schools of the majority there should be Roman Catholic Schools, as much so as the Convents themselves, except that they are Day, and not Boarding, Schools. The Protestants

in Upper Canada, being in the majority, have resolved that, by Law, and in fact, the Schools of the majority here should not be Denominational, not Roman Catholic, or Protestant, but national, equally common and acceptable to Protestants and Roman Catholics . . . (38)

48. At the same session of the Legislature, a similar Bill in favour of Lower Canadian Protestants met a similar fate, apparently because of the objection among Upper Canadian Protestants to granting further aid to the Catholic minority. (39) It was left, therefore, to the French Catholic majority in its own Legislature to grant Protestant demands.

NOTES

1. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XIII, p. 213.
2. *Ibid.*
3. Egerton Ryerson, *Dr. Ryerson's Letter's in Reply to the Attacks of the Hon. George Brown*, Toronto, 1859, p. 78.
4. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XVII, pp. 192-194.
5. *Ibid.*, p. 193.
6. For a full if biased account of the "finality" dispute, see Hodgins, *Legislation and History of Separate Schools in Upper Canada*, pp. 172-183.
7. *Ibid.*, pp. 175, 176.
8. *Ibid.*, p. 177.
9. *Ibid.*, pp. 179, 180.
10. *Ibid.*, pp. 180-182.
11. J. Harold Putman, *Egerton Ryerson and Education in Upper Canada*, Toronto, 1912, p. 198.
12. Rev. G. R. Northgraves to Bishop Lynch, February 16, 1865, *Lynch Papers*.
13. Egerton Ryerson, "On the New Separate School Agitation", February, 1865, Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XVIII, p. 306.
14. *Ibid.*, Vol. XVII, p. 218, letter to *The Leader* from Ryerson, July 10, 1862.
15. Hodgins, *Legislation and History of Separate Schools*, p. 173.
16. Ryerson to the Editor of the *British Whig*, March 18, 1865, Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XIX, p. 7.
17. *Ibid.*, Vol. XVIII, p. 314.
18. Ryerson to the Trustees of the Roman Catholic Separate School at Belleville, April 22, 1853, *ibid.*, Vol. XI, p. 88.
19. Ryerson, "On the New Separate School Agitation," *ibid.*, Vol. XVIII, p. 311.
20. Ryerson to the Editor of the *British Whig*, Kingston, March 18, 1865, *ibid.*, Vol. XIX, p. 7.
21. *Parliamentary Debates on the Subject of the Confederation of the British North American Provinces*, 3rd Session, 8th Provincial Assembly of Canada, printed by Order of the Legislature, Quebec, 1865, p. 1029.
22. George W. Parmalee, "English Education," in *Canada and Its Provinces*, Vol. XVI, Toronto, 1914, p. 483.
23. Bishop Lynch to "My Dear Mr. McDonald", December 13, 1864, *Lynch Papers*, Toronto Archdiocesan Archives.
24. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XVIII, p. 247.
25. *Confederation Debates*, p. 144.
26. *Ibid.*, p. 173.
27. *Ibid.*, pp. 190, 191.

28. *Ibid.*, pp. 409, 410.
29. *Ibid.*, pp. 410, 411.
30. *Ibid.*, p. 411.
31. *Ibid.*, p. 412.
32. *Lynch Papers*.
33. *Ibid.*
34. *Confederation Debates*, p. 665.
35. *Ibid.*, p. 1026.
36. *Ibid.*, p. 207.
37. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XIX, pp. 211, 212.
38. *Ibid.*, p. 278.
39. See O. D. Skelton, *The Life and Times of Sir Alexander Tilloch Galt*, Toronto, 1920, pp. 401-404.

VI. SECONDARY SCHOOLS

1. While Catholics in 1866 had requested a share in grammar school funds in accordance with their population, little on the question of secondary schools was heard prior to Confederation. This might seem strange when, in principle, the Catholic authorities had always insisted upon Catholic education on all levels for Catholic children. Why then were the pre-Confederation controversies confined largely to the common school level?

2. There are two reasons for this. In the first place, secondary schools as we know them today hardly existed, and it was considered that the common school gave the broad, general education required by all. Secondly, Catholics in fact did receive substantial aid for secondary education, along with other denominations, with the grant of government allowances for their colleges.

3. An important part of the denominational colleges of those days was the preparatory school. For example, in 1868, Rev. N. Burwash of Victoria College reported that Victoria had 60 students in Arts, about 200 in Law and Medicine, and 120 in the grammar preparatory school.(1) The "superior education" fund was distributed by the Legislature to denominational colleges and to grammar schools by the same enactment. As an instance of this, the House of Assembly on July 3rd, 1866, passed the following measure:

Resolved, That the sum of Twenty-five thousand dollars, (\$25,000) be granted to the Superior Education Income Fund, Upper Canada, to be distributed as follows:—To the Victoria College, Cobourg, the sum of Five thousand dollars; to the Regiopolis College, Kingston, the sum of Three thousand dollars; to the St. Michael's College, Toronto, the sum of Two thousand dollars; to Trinity College, Toronto, the sum of Four thousand dollars; to the Bytown College, Ottawa, the sum of one thousand and four hundred dollars; to the L'Assomption College, Sandwich, the sum of one thousand dollars, and to the Grammar School Fund, Upper Canada, the sum of Three thousand six hundred dollars; for the financial year ending on the 30th of June, 1867. (2)

4. In the early days of Upper Canada the grammar school was considered chiefly as a classical preparatory school for university. Since denominational colleges had preparatory schools attached to them, and since the grammar schools themselves were insignificant and poorly supported, it is no wonder that separate school agitation hardly touched secondary education. It was not really until 1871 that high schools as such were formed and took an important place in the general structure of Ontario education, and even then the education department took care to point out that the provisions of the revolutionary 1871 high school Act (34 Victoria, Chap. 33) did not "in any way" apply to separate schools.(3)

5. In any event, the grammar schools prior to Confederation played only a minor role in education in this province. In 1847 only five per cent of the students in Upper Canada attended grammar and private schools,(4) and twenty years later (1867) it was reported that, while the number of pupils between five and sixteen years of age attending school was 380,511 (5), only 5,696 attended grammar schools.(6)

6. While denominational preparatory schools aided by public funds were most important in secondary education, most of the grammar schools themselves imparted a religious education. Of interest in this matter is the 1855 report of Rev. William Ormiston, Inspector of Grammar Schools for the western section of Upper Canada:

In nearly all of the Schools, Prayers are offered, and the Scriptures read. In many of the Schools no little pains are taken to instil into the minds of the pupils correct principles, and to awaken in their hearts pure, generous, honourable and patriotic sentiments; besides, a very large proportion of the Trustees are Ministers of the Gospel, and necessarily exert a most salutary influence over the moral discipline of the Schools. (7)

Besides the inspector's reports, there is additional evidence of the religious character of these schools. One of the subjects prescribed for the fourth form of the grammar schools in 1855 was "Christian Morals and Evidences".(8) In addition, the Governor-General in Council had approved the regulations of the Council of Public Instruction for religious exercises in the grammar schools.(9)

7. Prior to Confederation many of the common schools gave an education equal to that given in the grammar schools. In 1848 Henry A. Clifford, Superintendent of common schools for Simcoe district, submitted that the common schools had so improved in his district that some of the townships "now boast of schools in which the teachers are capable of imparting a thorough English, and, in some instances, a good classical education".(10)

8. Eight years later, Inspector Ormiston declared that the development of free common schools was rendering the grammar schools even less popular than they once were, because "wherever a good class of Common

School is open and free, few are found willing to send pupils to the Grammar School,—where the fees are necessarily high,—to learn the same things which are taught quite as successfully in the Common School, at a much lower rate, and, in but a few places is the number of classical pupils sufficient of themselves to sustain the Grammar School”.(11)

9. In 1865 Ryerson himself pointed out that a large proportion of the grammar schools were teaching only common school subjects. Referring to regulations approved ten years earlier to improve grammar schools, Ryerson said:

But, from the inefficiency of the Common Schools at that time (1855) the Grammar Schools were still suffered to do Common School work; and the evil to the Grammar Schools has increased rather than diminished. In the meantime the Common Schools have so improved in character and efficiency as to be decidedly in advance of most of the Grammar Schools in teaching all the subjects of an ordinary English education; and to allow the Grammar Schools still to do Common School work is not only at variance with the object of the Grammar School Fund, but is an infringement on the province of Common Schools, a very serious injury to them in many cases, in doing poorly work which the Common Schools do well, and is destroying the efficiency of Grammar Schools in their own legitimate work. This remark does not, of course, apply to the few Grammar Schools, which strictly observe the Regulations established by law and confine their teaching to the subjects of the prescribed Programme of Studies. But, in a large proportion of the Grammar Schools, the legitimate work of the Grammar School constitutes the smallest part of their teaching,—in some instances is not done at all; while they are chiefly, and in some instances wholly, occupied in teaching the very same subjects that are prescribed, and are better taught in the Common Schools . . . (12)

10. A similar complaint was sounded in 1865 by Grammar School Inspector Rev. George P. Young, who pointed out that the girls in a Roman Catholic separate school in Hamilton knew more English grammar than most of the Hamilton grammar school pupils.(13) It was this inspector who, in 1868, advocated that a “new” type of school be formed which was to be different from both the grammar schools and the common schools. He would call these new schools “English High Schools”. This report undoubtedly furnished the basis for the Act of 1871 which established high schools. Following is Young’s recommendation:

It has been shown, that, for the great majority of the Pupils who crowd our Grammar Schools, the study of Latin is unsuitable; and also, that, as a rule, the advanced Pupils, male and female, in our Public Schools, [Grammar Schools] fail to receive a decent English education:—for I will not call an English education *decent*, which dismisses grown Boys and Girls from School unable to read ordinary English Authors intelligently. It follows, that to bring our educational system into a right condition, it is not enough that an end be put to the unnecessary study of Latin; a thorough reformation must, at the same time, be made in the teaching of English. In fact, the evils which have grown to a head in our Grammar Schools, appear to indicate that the time has arrived for the organization of a different sort of Schools from either the Grammar Schools, or the existing Common Schools.

Children under thirteen years of age, who do not mean to take a Classical Course of Study, have no educational wants which the Common Schools, properly

conducted, are not fitted to supply. For children of thirteen and upwards, who have already obtained such an education as may be got in good Common Schools, it would, I think, be well to establish English High Schools . . . (14)

11. Further on, Young continued:

The establishment,—either through a development of our Common School System, or through a modification of our Grammar School System, or partly in the one way and partly in the other,—of High Schools in which the English Language and Literature and Physical Science should be taught on the plan described, and in which other branches should receive the attention to which they are entitled, would be one of the greatest services that could be rendered to the Province. It would be an immediate inestimable boon to thousands of families, and would be certain to lead ultimately to great social results . . . (15)

12. Thus high schools and collegiate institutes as we know them today are not the descendants of the grammar schools, but rather are, in a sense, a new creation. As a further demonstration that high schools of today are not strictly the grammar schools of pre-Confederation days, Ryerson, as far back as 1850, said that the common school trustees could themselves establish “primary, intermediate and high schools”. (16) In 1852 the common school trustees in London directed the common school principal to introduce a study of the classics and abstract sciences to afford “a more extended range of studies than are generally pursued at common schools”. (17) Mr. Justice John Wilson, Local Superintendent at London, reported in 1863 that the common school there taught Latin, Greek, and French and that the studies were made extensive enough “to qualify students for entering upon the study of any of the learned professions, or to matriculate in any college or university of the province”. (18)

13. Only a few months prior to Confederation, the *Journal of Education*, official mouthpiece of the education department, pointed out that since common school trustees were permitted by law to determine the “kind and description” of schools, therefore there was “every legal facility for the establishment of high schools for girls throughout the country”. (19) In a circular to the chairman of each Board of Grammar School Trustees, Ryerson in June, 1868, stated again that common school trustees might establish high schools for girls and that the “Grammar School Fund was intended for the classical, mathematical, and higher English education for boys”. (20)

14. Thus, common school trustees could, and, in some cases, did, extend their common schools to the high school level. In any event, it was normal for most common and separate schools to teach algebra, geometry, book-keeping, mensuration and “natural philosophy”, as all the annual reports of the Chief Superintendent show. These “higher studies” were probably equivalent to those taught today in the first, second, and possibly third forms of high school.

15. Shortly after the 1871 Act, the new high schools began to teach subjects normally given in the higher grades of the common school. In his Annual Report for 1872, Ryerson remarked that:

The Council of Public Instruction, if it has erred at all, has done so in the direction rather of lowering than of maintaining the proper standard of High School instruction which the Legislature has set up. Thus for instance the Legislature has declared that in the High Schools shall be taught 'all the higher branches of an English and Commercial Education', etcetera. And yet the Council has fixed the standard of admission to High Schools quite below these 'higher branches'; for it has permitted Pupils to enter High Schools from a point midway between the third and fourth, (out of the six), Classes which are prescribed for the Public Schools (formerly common schools). We have, therefore, the singular fact presented to us, that both Public and High Schools are doing substantially the same work as laid down for the fourth (in part), fifth and sixth classes of the Public Schools, and for the first, second and third Classes of the High Schools! (21)

16. Ryerson's observations are substantiated by the *Sketch of the Educational Institutions of Ontario* which the Hon. Adam Crooks, Minister of Education, prepared for the Educational Exhibit of the Province of Ontario at the Centennial Exhibition, Philadelphia, 1876. Crooks stated that:

The prescribed Course of study for the Public School involves Reading, Spelling and Etymology, Writing, Arithmetic, Geography, Drawing, Music and Object Lessons for all the Classes, (being from one to six inclusive), and requiring 21½ hours of Study per week. Grammar and Composition began in the second Class; Chemistry and Botany in the fourth; General History and Literature, Natural History and Physiology, in the fourth class; while in the fifth and sixth classes, Civil Government, Natural Philosophy, Algebra, Geometry, Mensuration and Book-keeping are also prescribed subjects of study . . .

The High Schools, like the Public Schools, are open to Pupils of both sexes who can pass an Entrance Examination chiefly in the Fourth Class work of the Public Schools. (22)

17. Following Confederation, in some areas the separate and public schools apparently continued to instruct on the high school level. In 1902, Richard Harcourt, then Minister of Education, in delivering his Annual Report for 1901, described how public school "continuation classes" were "to all intents and purposes High Schools. In some localities the trustees have seen the wisdom of teachers holding university degrees, as well as certificates from the Normal College. In a few instances three teachers are now engaged, and the amount of work carried on is at least as extensive as that taken up in our smaller High Schools. These Continuation Classes have served to diffuse secondary education among the people of most parts of the Province." (23)

18. It is evident, therefore, that while separate schools were not affected by the 1871 education Act, nevertheless they were able to give secondary school instruction because of the broad nature of the old common school. In modern times, however, this was to be unhappily changed, when education department regulations prohibited the teaching of advanced high school subjects in public and separate schools. The crack-down began in 1915. For example, Dr. A. H. U. Colquhoun, Deputy Minister of Education, forwarded this instruction on June 7, 1915, to Bernard O'Connell, Secretary of the Roman Catholic Separate School Board at Dublin, Ontario:

I am directed by the Minister of Education to state that from the lists of candidates for the Middle School Normal Entrance examination, it would appear that work beyond that of the Lower School has been taken up in your school. Under the present Regulations, the courses of the Public and Separate Schools end with that for Form V and no School Board, either Public or Separate, can legally establish or maintain courses beyond this limit, either during or after school hours . . . Secondary Education beyond the Fifth Form of the Public and Separate Schools is amply provided for in the Continuation Schools Act, the High Schools Act, and the Board of Education Act. (24)

19. Naturally, separate school supporters were aroused and brought the issue to the courts in the 1920's. This led to the famous "Tiny Township Case". The petitioners in this case insisted among other things that separate school supporters "had and have had the right to establish and conduct courses of study and grades in education such as are now conducted in Continuation Schools, Collegiate Institutes and High Schools and that all regulations purporting to prohibit, limit or in any way prejudicially affect such right are invalid and *ultra vires*." (25)

20. The petition was rejected by Mr. Justice Rose in the Ontario Supreme Court on the 13th of May, 1926. The case was next brought before the Supreme Court of Canada and on the 10th of October, 1927, it was dismissed, the justices being equally divided. The appeal was dismissed finally by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in a judgment delivered by Viscount Haldane on June 12th, 1928.

21. In supporting the appellants, the Chief Justice of Canada, Right Hon. Francis Anglin, P.C., declared that:

Any statute or regulation that would materially diminish or curtail the scope of the education which denominational schools were, at the date of Confederation, legally entitled to impart, or that would tend to restrict the period^[1] during which supporters of such schools, Catholic or Protestant, were then legally entitled to have the education of their children subject to the influence of denominational control and instruction, would 'prejudicially affect a right or privilege with respect to denominational schools' enjoyed by the class of persons of which such supporters form a section. (26)

22. Nevertheless, in the Privy Council judgment Viscount Haldane declared that "the power of regulation must be interpreted in a wider sense than that given to it in the judgment of the Chief Justice of Canada. They [the Privy Council] are not at one with him in thinking that separate school trustees could give secondary education in their schools otherwise than by the permission, express or implied, of the Council of Public Instruction. The separate school was only a special form of common school, and the Council could in the case of each determine the courses to be pursued and the extent of the education to be imparted." Viscount Haldane then suggested that no matter what the case had been historically, the Privy Council was bound "simply to interpret the words used" in the statutes. While he did not feel that Section 93 (1) of the *British North America Act* had been contravened,

¹Common schools could educate children up to the age of 21.

nevertheless, they might attempt "a remedy of a wholly different kind in the shape of an appeal under Sub-section 3 to the Governor-General in Council in an administrative capacity. That question does not arise in this appeal and is in no way prejudiced by the conclusion to which their Lordships have come." (27)

23. Viscount Haldane proceeded to lay down his now famous judgment of "regulation but not abolition":

It is indeed true that power to regulate merely does not imply a power to abolish. But the controversy with which this board has to deal on the present occasion is a long way from abolition. It may be that the new laws will hamper the freedom of the Roman Catholics in their denominational schools. They may conceivably be or have been subjected to injustice of a kind that they can submit to the Governor-General in Council, and through him to the Parliament of Canada. But they are still left with separate schools, which are none the less actual because the liberty of giving secondary and higher education in them may be abridged by regulation. Such an abridgment may be in the usual course when a national system of education has attained a certain stage in its development, and it would be difficult to forego this power if the grading which may be essential is also to be possible. Their Lordships do not think grading is in itself inconsistent with such rights to separation of schools as were reserved at Confederation. (28)

24. W. N. Tilley, K.C., counsel for the Respondent in the Tiny Township Case, argued in the Supreme Court of Canada that the case as brought before the courts was not to be decided upon historical grounds but upon the exact words of the statutes, and apparently it was so decided. (29) The judgment, however sound legally, was a severe blow to Ontario Catholics who have historical proof that they do not now enjoy in their full scope the rights which they had at Confederation, and has understandably led to fear on their part that "regulation" could reduce even further their remaining rights. In the light of the decision of the Privy Council, it lies with the legislators of Ontario and those responsible for "regulations" regarding education to take the action necessary in this regard and to demonstrate that the people of Ontario are no less generous and tolerant than those of Quebec when the Protestant Educational System, free from the burden and restrictions which hamper the Separate Schools of Ontario, has progressed along with the majority system.

NOTES

1. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XX, p. 209.

2. *Ibid.*, Vol. XIX, p. 201.

3. *Journal of Education* for April, 1872, p. 64. Cited in *In the Privy Council, On Appeal from the Supreme Court of Canada, In the Matter of a Petition of Right Between the Trustees of the Roman Catholic School for School Section Number Two in the Township of Tiny . . .* (Tiny Township Case), *Proceedings*, p. 332. For the history of the grammar schools see W. E. Macpherson, *The Ontario Grammar Schools*, Kingston, 1916, especially pp. 18, 19.

4. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XX, p. 129, Chief Superintendent's Report for 1867.

5. *Ibid.*
6. *Ibid.*, p. 136.
7. *Ibid.*, Vol. XII, p. 84.
8. *Ibid.*, Vol. XI, p. 201.
9. *Ibid.*, Vol. XI, p. 193, and Vol. XVIII, pp. 257-259.
10. Annual Report of Chief Superintendent for 1849, p. 14, cited in *Tiny Township Case Proceedings*, p. 267.
11. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XII, p. 331.
12. *Ibid.*, Vol. XVIII pp. 252, 253. Circular from Ryerson to the Boards of Grammar School Trustees in Upper Canada, May 1, 1865.
13. *Ibid.*, Vol. XIX, p. 102.
14. *Ibid.*, Vol. XX, p. 116.
15. *Ibid.*, p. 123.
16. Annual Report of the Chief Superintendent for 1850, p. 18, cited in *Tiny Township Case Proceedings*, p. 97.
17. Appendix A, p. 132 of Annual Report of the Chief Superintendent for 1852, cited in *Tiny Township Case Proceedings*, p. 99.
18. Annual Report of the Chief Superintendent for 1863, p. 154, cited in *Tiny Township Case Proceedings*, p. 103.
19. *Journal of Education for Upper Canada* (May, 1867) p. 81, cited in *Tiny Township Case Proceedings*, pp. 315, 316.
20. *Journal of Education for Upper Canada* (June, 1868) p. 84, cited in *Tiny Township Case Proceedings*, p. 317.
21. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XXIV, p. 301.
22. *Ibid.*, Vol. XXVIII, pp. 177, 179.
23. Annual Report of the Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario for the Year 1901, pp. xxiii, xxiv. See also the Report for 1900, p. ix.
24. Cited in *Tiny Township Case Proceedings*, pp. 345, 356.
25. *Tiny Township Case, Appellant's Petition*, p. 4.
26. *Ibid.*, *Proceedings*, p. 380.
27. *Dominion Law Reports*, Vol. 3, Toronto, 1928, p. 771.
28. *Ibid.*, p. 772.
29. *Tiny Township Case Proceedings*, p. 26.

VII. PRINCIPLES BEHIND THE CONFLICT

1. Hodgins once remarked at a Synod meeting of the Church of England held in Toronto, that "Roman Catholic standards (in education) . . . differed in *toto* from the standards of every Protestant Denomination." (1) Here Hodgins for once hit upon the truth. If we except the Church of England agitation of the 1840's and 50's, the Protestant bodies have largely united behind Ryerson's notion that the function of the common school system was to impart a "common Christianity". On the other hand, from the very beginning, Catholic authorities have insisted upon Catholic schools for Catholic children on all levels.

2. This has been the universal attitude of the Catholic Church and, as we have seen, Catholics of Upper Canada felt no differently on this point than Catholics anywhere else. The hierarchy has not kept this stand a secret, and if there has been any misunderstanding it must be attributed to Canadian educationists who have disregarded the Catholic position, or who

hoped (in vain) to absorb Catholic schools completely within the common system by dividing the laity from the clergy.

3. In a circular to his priests on the 18th of March, 1853, Bishop Charbonnel referred to the conference of Bishops at the first Quebec Council, June, 1851, which fully stated the Catholic policy. He said that the council had decreed:

... with the approbation of the Holy See that mixed schools, as very dangerous, ... are to be discountenanced as much as possible by pastors and faithful, and that the bishops should leave nothing undone ... in order to obtain for the Catholics throughout the whole province their right of having Separate Schools, elementary and normal, colleges and universities.(2)

The bishop was supported by *The Toronto Mirror* when, in an editorial on June 6th, 1856, it declared:

The Separate School question is the most important and difficult of solution now before the country.

Because unless settled upon a just and equitable basis, its agitation will never be satisfactory to 300,000 of the inhabitants of Canada West ...

Because if not thus settled in accordance with the decrees of the Council of Quebec, it will be ever repugnant to the doctrine and discipline of the greatest community in Christendom, the Church of Rome.(3)

4. Earlier, *The Mirror* attacked what it considered to be Ryerson's attempt to divide laity and clergy on the school question. In spite of the attitude of the education department, Catholics were united, the paper stated, and added that they were unanimous in their determination to resist interference with their religious opinions and "dictation in respect to the education of our children."(4)

5. A spectacular example of a Catholic layman who insisted on the right of Catholic schools, was the picturesque Irish emigrant, Thomas D'Arcy McGee. On July 10th, 1856, McGee wrote from New York to Bishop de Charbonnel, telling him that he was "disappointed in this country [the United States] of that religious freedom and equal justice, which was the hope of so many emigrants", he had all but decided to come to Canada. McGee added that he hoped to bring up his children "unstained" by "false systems of education, or *miseducation*, and as I cannot isolate them thoroughly in this state of society, I am most anxious to take them, with that view, to Canada ..."

6. The future eloquent proponent of Confederation proceeded to confess that he was considering the political life and would aid de Charbonnel in his school fight:

I will not conceal from your Lordship, that being in my 32nd year, and having a passion for political studies, I would fain hope to enter your Parliament, and render some service in the battle which your Lordship is so heroically fighting for the souls of the children of your province.(5)

7. Less obtrusive, but more important, was the support given to the hierarchy in the school struggle by prominent Catholic laymen who served

as trustees and by the ordinary Catholic parent who supported the separate school system in the face of economic hardship and Ryerson's almost incessant propaganda barrage. Best evidence of the genuine and widespread nature of this support is the flourishing condition of separate schools today.

8. In their defence of Catholic education, Catholic polemicists insisted throughout the worst days of the controversy that they had no intention of harming the common school system, but that they wanted merely to establish Catholic schools, wherever possible, for Catholic children. They wanted this done as a part of the new movement for general instruction, and they could see no reason why their schools should not be placed on a fair basis with the schools preferred by the Protestant majority.

9. Rev. J. M. Bruyère, rector of St. Michael's Cathedral and a leading Catholic controversialist, pronounced his views on this point in the following manner:

For the attainment of an object so dear to their heart, for the preservation of which even the sacrifice of life becomes a duty, Catholics will have and must have schools where religion will be the basis of education, schools where, besides the elements and principles of a secular education, children will be taught the doctrines of their Church, and where that Church will not be turned into ridicule . . . For the maintenance of their schools conducted on their own principles, Catholics do not ask for the money of Protestants . . . So far as they are concerned, they have never ceased to protest against the grand imposition of the Common School system, because they derive and can derive no benefit therefrom, either for themselves or their children. They do not wish, however, for the discontinuance of what others may choose to avail themselves of. If some Protestants are satisfied with the working and fruits of the Common Schools, let them have them to their hearts' content. If some Protestants can conscientiously approve a system of education which in the neighbouring Republic, is producing a generation of infidels, Catholics will have none of it. They ask for no favour or partiality. What they petition for, is simply the right of applying to the education of their children what little means they can dispose of. (6)

At another time, Bruyère re-asserted:

With one accord, one mind, pastors and people, demand *not* the abolition of Common Schools, as Dr. Ryerson would fain charge us with doing. We ask no favour, we ask our rights. We ask that we may be permitted to fulfil our duty towards our children, without tantalizing interference. Catholics ask to be let alone in the management of their free, independent and voluntary schools. They ask not to be compelled to send their children to houses of education against which they have conscientious objections. (7)

10. As we saw earlier, both Bishops Power and de Charbonnel did not object to Catholic children attending common schools if a separate school were impracticable and there was no unusual danger to the faith of the children. Once, in the height of the 1856 controversy, Father Bruyère, possibly carried away with his own rhetoric, maintained that: "a Catholic parent, who values his faith above all worldly advantages, and who rightly considers Religion as the basis of all education, and the life of man upon earth, would rather doom his child to the horror of the most degrading

ignorance, than permit him to drink in the Common Schools the poison of infidelity, or heresy, along with the pure draught of useful knowledge.”(8)

11. That the extravagance of his statement did not find official confirmation may be seen from the pronouncements of Archbishop John Joseph Lynch of Toronto who expressed the traditional stand of the hierarchy in a lecture in 1874, when he explained:

In our anxiety to have our Catholic children educated we permit them to frequent the Common Schools where the paucity of their number prevents them from having a Separate School. We know it is a risk, they are surrounded by a Protestant atmosphere . . . the absence of Catholic teaching and Catholic prayer, week after week, and month after month, act banefully but surely on the youthful mind; and yet, for the sake of education we tolerate all that, hoping at the same time that the Catholic priest and parent will counteract the effects of this want of daily religious school education. We have besides in Upper Canada, a vast number of our children also frequenting Common Schools with our full consent, because the township is Catholic, the trustees are Catholic, the teacher is a Catholic; because we look upon it as our own separate School; but yet this fact is commented on as a proof of how Catholics love the Common School system.(9)

12. Catholic arguments in favour of their schools were not solely negative. They pointed out that in their view the Catholic Church had a divine mission to perform in the education of Catholic children and that any education which neglected Christianity as taught by the Catholic Church was incomplete and even dangerous for Catholics. As far back as September, 1841, a Catholic paper in Kingston editorialized:

The Catholics wish to have the unchangeable sense of the universal church given in the reading of Scripture to her children, and not that of every school-master, Anglican, Presbyterian, Methodist, Baptist, Unitarian, Mormonite, Irvingite, Caudite or whom you please; for all in our liberal Protestant system are admissible as teachers.(10)

13. Catholics felt that it was essential that the Church keep her guiding hand in giving religious instruction. At a general meeting of the Roman Catholics of Toronto held on the 17th of May, 1852, it was unanimously resolved that:

As Catholics we cannot sanction any System of Common School Education for the youth of our Community, but one which will, at all times, secure the full need of Religious Instruction under the legitimate Ecclesiastical Authority of our Church.(11)

Two years later, Bishop de Charbonnel said in a letter to Rome that the school question was: “the most vital question in Upper Canada; the devil and his agents know this very well; if our children continue to go to the Protestant schools, our enormous Cathedrals will soon be too large.”(12) The hierarchy objected not only to the danger of Protestant teachings, but to a purely secular instruction. Bishop Pinsonneault of Sandwich told his clergy on August 4th, 1861, that “the school system of a purely secular instruction, such as is systematically held out now-a-days, is emphatically reproved by the Church as alike dangerous to the child, to the family, and

to society at large." The Bishop added that "secular instruction should be grounded on religious teaching", and that the Church was interested in education from the University level "down to the most humble village schools." (13)

14. An 1852 editorial in the *True Witness*, of Montreal, summarized the Catholic view when it emphasized the supreme function of religion in education:

Religion, and religion alone, of all sublunary things, is the only absolute and unmixed good, and no other earthly consideration can come in competition with it. The system of education, then, that would exclude the holy teaching, and sanctifying influences of religion, is not adapted to form the young minds of the children of Catholic parents. (14)

It was the obligation of parents to give children a proper education, the paper held:

It is a subject of regret that our Canadian Legislature contains men of the 'olden School,' who under the influence of perhaps, an involuntary prejudice, would violate the sacred rights of conscience, by restrictive and compulsory enactments for directing the education of youth. On this subject the Catholic mind is firmly and finally decided, and no interference between the parent and the child, in this delicate but solemn responsibility, can be allowed. 'We must obey God rather than man' is their rule of conduct. The sacred deposit of the faith, the glorious inheritance of their forefathers, must be carefully and faithfully transmitted to posterity, and no party nor power, however high, has any right to intrude its unhallowed influence into this sacred connection. (15)

Catholics did not wish to interfere with the plans of others and saw no reason why their interests should be prejudiced, the editorial continued:

Simple equality with their fellow-subjects is their sole and righteous demand; and while solemnly disclaiming all interference with the privileges of others, for which they have neither time, nor taste, nor inclination; they claim a similar indulgence, and a corresponding immunity from legislative annoyance. (16)

15. It was the function of the State to provide the child with the type of education his parents wished, Father Bruyère wrote:

We poor benighted Catholics have been taught that on parents devolves the duty of educating, as well as feeding, and clothing the child. The State will have sufficiently done its part, by enabling the parent to procure for his child such an education as he deems proper. (17)

At another time, he affirmed that "Catholics claim the privilege of educating their children, as they deem proper, and in their own schools." (18)

16. Catholic apologists argued that while it was the office of the parent to see to his child's education, it was necessary for him to send the child to school to obtain this education. Catholics were obliged to try to send their children to Catholic schools since only there could they receive proper religious training. (19) As Moylan observed in his valedictory remarks:

The Doctor's [Ryerson] pet theory is non-religious instruction at School, Religious ditto at home, which would, of course, answer were all Parents equally well informed; but suppose, as is frequently the case, that the Parent, although suf-

ficiently well grounded in his own faith, has not the gift of being able to instruct others, then the superiority of our system is shown, as the School supplies the deficiency . . . (20)

17. Catholic authorities consistently held to these principles of education. In the lengthy and fierce controversies that waged in the 1850's and 60's these principles emerge clearly. We have already seen Ryerson's reaction to the Catholic attitude, and it would therefore serve to complete this study if we examine briefly the statements of other non-Catholics in Upper Canada.

18. We saw earlier that the demand for secular training arose largely in opposition to what were believed to be monopolistic demands of the Church of England. The so-called "Reform" party led in this fight. While a Reformer such as Dr. Duncombe made allowances for separate schools, many of this group opposed any government aid to denominational education. In this they did not pose as being anti-religious, but they felt that they would be fair to all religious bodies in divorcing completely the state from the church. Typical of this attitude was the letter which Hon. David Reesor sent to M. Teefy, of Richmond Hill, on January 16th, 1859:

The fact is that there should be no money grants to any religious institutions nor any legislation on religious questions, in Parliament. Public opinion in Canada is fast tending to that end and I think it not only right but that it would be the best policy for the members of your Church at once to take that position. Leaving all denominations to stand on precisely the same footing . . . (21)

19. More prominent in liberal circles was George Brown, editor of the *Toronto Globe*. Brown combined his defence of secular schooling with a strong anti-Catholic flavour, an example of which can be found in a *Globe* editorial on the 27th of October, 1856:

. . . and are we to be called sectarians because we also oppose the Church of Rome, the most grasping and tyrannical of Churches, the ally of despotism in every country in which it has a foothold? Ask the liberals of the continent of Europe what power they dread most, and they will tell you that it is neither King nor Kaiser, but the Pope and his priesthood. (22)

It is not surprising, then, to read this in his paper of 26th August, 1856:

But the truth is that, since all connection between Sectarianism and the State has been abolished in the pulpit, to continue it in the academy is utterly ridiculous and inconsistent. Let us have one uniform comprehensive *secular* system of common schools open to all and fitted for all. (23)

20. Such ideas did not, of course, remain outside the legislative chambers. During the Confederation Debates in 1865, Thomas R. Ferguson, (South Simcoe) regretted that the proposals were to allow a continuance of the separate school system. He probably expressed a fairly widespread opinion when he said:

I am sorry that bone of contention is to be incorporated into the permanent Constitution of this country . . . of my own knowledge, in places where separate schools have been established and are still existing, the Roman Catholics have

grown weary of them, and I am satisfied they would now be willing that their children should get their education along with the children of the rest of the community, without any fear that their respect for their own religion would be interfered with, or their consciences injured. I trust the day will come when they will all take the right view of it, and the question with them with reference to education may be—not what church they may belong to—but how their children may receive the best education, and grow up with other youth in peace and harmony. (24)

21. Opposition to separate schools came as well from some of the Protestant bodies. Leading in insistence on withdrawal of all state aid for denominational schools of all levels were the Baptists. In July, 1847, the Executive Committee of the Canada Baptist Union petitioned the Legislative Assembly against allowing any funds for religious colleges. Grants to religious schools would mean, the petitioners said, an alliance of church and state. Such an alliance “in any form, and to any extent, is incompatible with the spirit and precepts of Christianity, injurious to the interests of Religion, and highly detrimental to civil freedom,—as all history shows—” (25)

22. While Presbyterians wished the Bible to be used in the common schools, they denounced any attempt to levy taxes on Protestants for the support of Catholic separate schools. On the 2nd of June, 1857, the Synod of the Presbyterian Church forwarded this petition to the Governor General:

Our Church has always taken a profound interest in the education of the young. And while the present system of our Common Schools in Western Canada has not our entire approval, we have been pleased to know that the Bible is read in most of them, and that their advantages are enjoyed by children of all Denominations. We, therefore, utterly condemn the changes which some of our Roman Catholic Brethren are striving to effect in their constitution, and in the mode by which they are sustained. We deprecate the success of every attempt to exclude from them that Holy Volume, which God has Graciously given for our instruction in youth, as well as for our guidance and consolation in riper years. And we trust, that no enactment will ever be framed by our Legislature, or sanctioned by Your Excellency, for transferring any part of the taxes levied on Protestants for Common Schools, to the support of Schools designed only for Roman Catholics; for such an appropriation would be in our view, alike unjust to the former, and eventually injurious to the latter. (26)

23. Municipal councils and common school boards alike voiced innumerable protests against separate schools. On July 7th, 1851, the House of Assembly heard a petition from the Municipal Council of York County which attacked the legislative provisions for Roman Catholic separate schools in Protestant areas. They feared that other classes and denominations might apply for the same concessions, and the result would be “the prostration of the Education of the people at the shrine of Religious sectarianism, in the first place; the fostering and dissemination of unamiable feelings in society, arising from the early separation, and consequent estrangement, of the youth of the Country, in the second place; and thirdly,

the exhibition of Common School Education,—not in a position in which it is appreciated on its own intrinsic merits alone, but as estimated chiefly, or merely, as a means to conduce to the prevalence, or propagation, of the peculiar tenets, or opinions, of contending, or discordant sects . . .”(27) The legislature heard a number of petitions of the same nature.

24. In May, 1852, the public school trustees of Toronto held that separate schools had been established only to meet the exigency of “the anticipated intrusion of the religious dogmas of a majority upon a minority.” However, the trustees declared, there was no ground for such a complaint in Toronto where the common schools had been “established upon a broad catholic basis, rendering the demand for Separate Schools utterly indefensible.”(28) Perhaps the stand of the Toronto Trustees was more adequately explained when, in March, 1856, they petitioned the Legislative Assembly to the effect that large sums had been expended in the city to provide a common school education for all children and therefore the extension of separate schools would prove a “danger and a loss”.(29)

25. A large proportion of the Protestants, while they wished no division in the new common school system, still wished their children to obtain a religious education. This is made clear in the attitude of the Methodists toward the University question. They followed Ryerson in thinking that while denominational schools were not necessary for day students, yet residential colleges should be religious. A conference of the Wesleyan Methodist Church in Hamilton in June, 1859, drew up resolutions which included these statements:

. . . no provision for instruction in secular learning alone can compensate for the absence of provision, or care, for the Religious and Moral Instruction of youth in the most exposed, critical and eventful period of their lives . . .

. . . it is of the highest importance to the best interests of Canada that the Legislative provision for Superior Education should be in harmony with the conscientious convictions and circumstances of the religious persuasions, who virtually constitute the Christianity of the Country.(30)

26. Victoria College, in February, 1864, published a pamphlet of a Special Committee of the Methodist Conference. This pamphlet contained some interesting remarks to defend the University demands of the Methodists against those who were opposed to “sectarian education.” The pamphlet reads in part:

Suppose this were the case, would it not be better that the youth of the Country, educated, or uneducated,—and the more so if highly educated,—should be carefully taught and trained in the doctrines, principles and duties of Religion, as believed by their Denomination, than to have no Religious tendency, or training, at all? What would soon be the state of our Country, if its youth were not nurtured in the doctrines, principles and practice of any Religious Persuasion,—for that is the simple import of the objection against what is called ‘sectarian education.’ If the youth of the Country are taught in Religious Doctrine and worship at all, must they not be taught and trained in the doctrines and worship of some

Religious Persuasion? Is there any such thing as Non-denominational Religion, or Worship? . . . To oppose an education, which involves Religious Instruction by some Sect, is therefore, to oppose all Religious Instruction of youth . . . (31)

27. The pamphlet went on to answer the objection that "To grant public aid to denominational colleges is inconsistent with the fundamental principles of our non-denominational Common School System." It was not true, the Methodists replied, that the fundamental principle of the common school system was non-denominational. The pamphlet pointed out that by law the trustees could establish denominational schools, if they wished, in urban areas:

The Law leaves it with the electors and their Trustee Representatives in each of these Municipalities to decide for themselves whether their Schools shall be Denominational, or not. What is optional cannot be fundamental, but must be contingent, or incidental. (32)

28. Protestants interested in denominational colleges were not hesitant to use political pressure, just as Catholics used political pressure for separate schools. For example Rev. A. Carman, President of Albert College, Belleville, told *The Canadian Christian Advocate*, in May, 1868, that ". . . the question must go to Parliament by Petition; and if this will not avail, then to the people at the polls . . ." (33)

29. Not all Protestants were opposed to Catholics having their own separate day schools. At the annual convention of the Ontario Teachers' Association held in Toronto in August, 1875, the President, Goldwin Smith, noted historian, who came to Canada from Oxford and Cornell, said that he thought the legislature had "acted wisely in instituting Separate Schools." He pointed out how "difficult it would have been to get the Roman Catholic portion of their population to co-operate in any sort of National System unless they had made that concession." Smith added that he hoped the day would come when "not only [would] education be religious, but they would be able to reintroduce religion into the teaching of their Public Schools, instead of the present system of secular education in the schools and religious education at home and in Sunday School." This latter arrangement was only because of "religious perplexity and division, when it was impossible to get people to be all taught the same creed." (34)

30. Most energetic in defence of the separate school principle were the authorities in the Church of England in the 1840's and 50's. It is this fact which accounts for so much of the opposition to Roman Catholic Separate Schools, for it was feared that if Catholics had their own schools there was no reason why other religious bodies could not have theirs and this, it was felt, would lead to disintegration of the school system as planned by Ryerson.

31. Bishop John Strachan of Toronto led the Church of England separate school agitation. In 1845 he petitioned that the laws which prevented public support for Church of England denominational common schools placed members of that church in a "position of peculiar hardship." He

felt that religion was the "groundwork of all sound education" and that Church of England members regarded it as a "sacred duty to train up their children Members of the Church of England." (35)

32. The "Church Society" of the Church of England maintained in 1856 that the mixed schools could not provide a proper religious education:

The Education, which is afforded in our Common Schools, is, in consequence of the unhappy religious divisions amongst us, intended to embrace all, and, therefore, it is almost entirely of a secular nature; and every attempt to render it, in any practical way, truly religious, must be expected to fail, because, under such circumstances, God's truth must be suppressed in part, in order that those who receive the whole truth may be enabled to combine with those who receive only a part of it . . .

The most effectual means, by which a system of religious education can be carried out, is through the medium of Parochial Schools; and the Church Society embraces the present occasion to impress upon all of its Members the necessity, and the duty, of establishing such Schools, wherever it may be found practicable. (36)

33. In May, 1851, Bishop Strachan, in his "Charge" to the Church of England Synodical Meeting in Toronto, described the lack of provision for parochial schools as an "intolerable degradation" and believed that, unless something were done, "our children will become infidels." The Bishop added that:

We must demand what the Roman Catholics have already obtained,—Separate Schools; and I honour them for insisting on this just concession. A request so reasonable cannot be long withheld from us, for unjust class legislation cannot endure long in any Country. (37)

Five years later, Strachan was even more severe. He told the Annual Meeting of the Church of England Diocese of Toronto in 1856 that:

I am fully convinced that the whole System of Education over which he [Ryerson] presides is rotten to the core, and that its tendency is to produce general unbelief. For surely the cold and scanty recognition of the Gospel which we have noticed, and the partial reading of the Scriptures in a portion of the Schools, merely by sufferance, and the permitting of Prayer at the opening and closing of one-seventh only of these Schools, will be found quite insufficient to prevent this unhappy result. Much more is required to cherish and bring forth the fruits of true Religion . . . (38)

34. Strachan's attitude was common to many in the Church of England at that time. Perhaps the best defence of the principle of religious schools came not from Catholic pens, but from that of Rev. Adam Townley in his *Seven Letters on the Non-Religious Common School System of Canada and the United States* (1853). Townley sharply criticized Ryerson's view of the nature of religious education, and suggested that it was wrong for the government to allow Ryerson to propagate through official channels his peculiar ideas:

. . . it is to all, but the ultra-liberal religionists, whom he happens to represent, a grievous denominational wrong, for Provincial funds to be thus used in dis-

seminating one class of doctrinal sentiments, since to those who hold opposite views no such means of defending their opinions is offered. While the Government repudiates the very idea of state-ministerial support, it has surely no right to put the Province to the expense of printing the sectarian religious lectures of one of its officers. (39)

35. Denying the whole basis of Ryerson's claim that a "common Christianity" which would be satisfactory to all could be taught in the schools, Townley insisted that "Christianity is not a mere compound of negations, nor is it only a code of moral precepts; it is a positive, mysterious, sacramental institution, the fulfilment of whose duties and the enjoyment of whose transcendent blessings depend upon the positive reception of Divine grace, which grace, in order to its being obtained is to be sought in certain ways, by the performance of certain conditions, and through the aid of certain acts of service and worship, all prescribed or sanctioned by the Divine Author of our religion Himself." As a consequence, Townley felt, it was self-evident that "such a system as this requires positive, didactic, and explicit teaching, with the enforcing of certain well understood methods of religious service and Divine worship." (40)

36. Parents had the right to educate children as they wished, the minister added:

Other despots may occasionally require an oppressive degree of state service from the sons of their subjects, but *your* despotism seeks to *compel us*, if possible, either to leave our sons and daughters uneducated, or to yield them to be taught under a system, which we believe most injurious to the noblest faculties of their souls . . . And this bitter religious tyranny is the boasted freedom of democratic Canada in the nineteenth century! (41)

Ryerson's attitude in attacking "sectarian" day schools was one of placing country above Christianity, Townley asserted, for Christianity was known only to individuals through some "sect". (42)

37. Merely to set aside certain periods for religious instruction was not enough, he held, showing that:

Of religious instruction that which, is *incidentally* given is, perhaps, the most effective; and for this, the hours spent at school afford the fairest opportunity. Thus the routine reading of Holy Scripture must afford frequent opportunities of plainly enforcing, on the young mind, its practical teaching. (43)

Then, too, Ryerson's assertion that children attending day school could receive adequate denominational instruction from parents and clergy at home was false, Townley declared, explaining that Sunday Schools could not do the job because of the shortage of clergy in all religious bodies. (44)

38. In spite of such arguments, eventually the Church of England officials gave up their quest for separate schools. In 1856 at the meeting of the Church of England Synod in Toronto one minister remarked that, while he was in favour of religious instruction, yet he had come to the conclusion "that to attempt to obtain the establishment of Separate Schools for the Church of England was simply impracticable." (45) Others did not agree,

however, and at the Synod in June, 1858, a layman, Dr. James Bovell, in submitting a report of the committee on separate schools, declared that the common school system was a "failure" and that it was simply not true that children were obtaining a religious education at home.(46)

39. Nevertheless, the tide had now turned and in the 1860's the agitation had died down, those who feared that continued demands for separate schools would disrupt the common school system having won the day.(47)

40. At the present time, therefore, all Protestant bodies in Ontario have generally united behind the public school system and there no longer exists the danger which Ryerson feared—the disintegration of the school system into innumerable denominational schools. Because of deeply held convictions on the nature of the Church, Catholics have remained firm advocates of Catholic schools, and history shows there is not the slightest chance of their attitude changing. Not to permit Catholic tax money to go to Catholic schools on all levels would only irritate Catholic citizens without changing them into supporters of the public system.

41. In Quebec, the religious minority has no such complaints against their treatment in education as vex Catholics in Ontario. As George M. Weir declared in his book on *The Separate School Question in Canada*:

No system in Canada provides a better criterion for appraising the purport and effectiveness of Section 93 of the British North America Act. In no Province is the spirit of the Fathers of Confederation, with reference to a satisfactory solution of the thorny problems arising from the educational 'rights and privileges' of religious minorities, better exemplified than in the Province of Quebec.(48)

We have seen that Ryerson did not agree with the principle of separate schools, yet even he declared, in 1858, that the Catholics of Upper Canada should have the same rights as the Protestants of Lower Canada:

I appeal to the judgment and heart of every just man in Upper Canada—whether the Roman Catholics of Upper Canada are to be treated with less justice and liberality than the Protestants of Lower Canada?(49)

In the same year, Ryerson declared:

Nor should it be forgotten that as long as the right of establishing separate schools is claimed by, and granted to the Protestant minority in Lower Canada, the right to establish separate schools ought not to be denied to the Roman Catholic minority in Upper Canada, and on equal terms. Supposing it to be a disadvantage to that minority in both cases, it is for the parties chiefly and immediately concerned to judge, rather than for others.(50)

Later, in 1863, Ryerson observed that "Protestants in Upper Canada can surely afford to be as liberal as are Roman Catholics in Lower Canada."(51)

42. That Roman Catholics in Ontario will defend with the greatest ardour any attack on their rights in education is an obvious lesson from history. As a minority, they count upon the tolerance, fairness, and reason of the Protestant majority of this province to ensure that the Confederation agreement on the question of schools is not reduced to a nonentity.

NOTES

1. Address of J. George Hodgins before the Synod of the Church of England at the Cathedral Church of St. James, Toronto, June, 1862, Hodgins, *Legislation and History of Separate Schools*, p. 148.
2. *Charbonnel Papers*.
3. *The Mirror*, June 6, 1856.
4. *Ibid.*, December 31, 1852.
5. *Charbonnel Papers*.
6. Rev. J. M. Bruyère to the *Toronto Mirror*, April 4, 1856.
7. Rev. J. M. Bruyère to *The Leader*, January 5, 1857, in *Dr. Ryerson's Replies to the Attacks of Foreign Ecclesiastics*, p. 62.
8. The same to the "Conductors of the Press in Canada", December, 1856, Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XIII, p. 2.
9. Lecture by Archbishop Lynch in St. Michael's Cathedral, quoted in *The Tribune*, Toronto, August 27, 1874.
10. *The Catholic*, Kingston, September 24, 1841 (Editor Rev. William P. McDonald, Vicar General).
11. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. X, p. 272.
12. *Charbonnel Papers*, Charbonnel to the President of the Propagation of the Faith Society, Rome, September 30, 1854.
13. Miscellaneous Papers, Toronto Archdiocesan Archives.
14. *The Question of Separate Schools, Discussed in a Series of Letters and Other Articles . . .* Toronto, 1853, p. 34.
15. *Ibid.*, p. 33.
16. *Ibid.*, pp. 34, 35.
17. Rev. J. M. Bruyère, January 27, 1857, in *Dr. Ryerson's Replies to the Attacks of Foreign Ecclesiastics*, p. 87.
18. *Ibid.*, p. 57, January 5, 1857.
19. See pastoral letter of the Fathers of the First Plenary Council of Quebec, September 19th - November 1st, 1909, Miscellaneous Papers, Toronto Archdiocesan Archives.
20. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XXV, p. 204.
21. Miscellaneous Papers, Archives of Ontario.
22. Appendix to *Dr. Ryerson's Letters in Reply to the Hon. George Brown*, p. 101.
23. *Ibid.*, p. 100.
24. *Confederation Debates*, p. 961.
25. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. VII, pp. 13, 14.
26. *Ibid.*, Vol. XIII, p. 132.
27. *Ibid.*, Vol. IX, p. 230.
28. *Ibid.*, Vol. X, p. 267.
29. *Ibid.*, Vol. XII, p. 229.
30. *Ibid.*, Vol. XIV, p. 205.
31. *Ibid.*, Vol. XVIII, p. 33.
32. *Ibid.*, p. 34.
33. *Ibid.*, Vol. XX, p. 201.
34. *Ibid.*, Vol. XXVII, p. 58.
35. *Ibid.*, Vol. V, pp. 156, 157.
36. *Ibid.*, Vol. VII, pp. 201, 202.
37. *Ibid.*, Vol. X, p. 91.
38. *Ibid.*, Vol. XIII, p. 26.

39. *Seven Letters on the Non-Religious Common School System of Canada and the United States*, 1853, p. 4.
40. *Ibid.*, p. 9.
41. *Ibid.*, p. 33.
42. *Ibid.*, p. 10.
43. *Ibid.*, p. 27.
44. *Ibid.*, p. 31.
45. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XIII, p. 30.
46. *Ibid.*, pp. 274, 275.
47. *Ibid.*, Vol. XVII, pp. 190, 191.
48. George M. Weir, *The Separate School Question in Canada*, Toronto, 1934, p. 48.
49. *Dr. Ryerson's Letters in Reply to the Hon. George Brown*, p. 18.
50. *Ibid.*, p. 17.
51. Hodgins, *Documentary History*, Vol. XVII, p. 274. Paper prepared by Ryerson, April 6, 1863.

MEMORANDUM
BY
MR. HENRI SAINT-JACQUES

1. I wish to add a few comments on that section of the Commission's Report which deals with schools wherein French is a subject of study and a language of instruction and communication with the permission of the Minister of Education.

2. These schools, through long years of experimentation and with the close co-operation of the Department of Education, the teachers, the inspectors, and with the goodwill of the French-speaking people of Ontario, have evolved methods and settled on principles which leading educationalists recognize as perfectly sound and practicable. These principles are based, in part, on the following statement taken from Chapter XXII of the Commission's Report: ". . . he [the teacher] should possess a general culture, in order to assess the capabilities of his pupils, to understand their possibilities of development, and to select the proper means of stimulating their growth. He should have an adequate knowledge of the language of instruction in its written and spoken forms, both as a vehicle of communication and as a medium for thinking . . ."

3. Through the application of these methods and principles, the English-French Schools, as they are popularly called, have attained a satisfactory degree of excellence. The best ones compare favourably with the best public schools in the training of children and attainment in the essential subjects—leaving aside the frills with which the public schools are burdened. The graduates of English-French Schools compete successfully with those of the public schools in commercial, industrial, secretarial, and professional fields.

4. We admit that, as is the case with public schools and all other human institutions, these schools could be improved. But changes and modifications, if made, must conform to, and be in harmony with, those methods and principles which at present prevail, and to the extent to which they now prevail. Otherwise, there will result a stagnation, or at least a retardation, in the natural, normal, and full development of the child which would defeat the supreme aim of education. Care, therefore, must be taken not to disregard the true function of education for an imaginary political end.

5. Among the many factors which have contributed to the efficiency of these schools, the University of Ottawa Normal School has played a

leading role. It is maintained and operated as a provincial normal school. Let there be no misunderstanding: the University of Ottawa has no part in the training of the student teacher nor in the administration of the school.

6. In 1927 the Merchant-Scott-Coté Committee reported as follows on the qualifications of teachers employed in the English-French Schools:

Teachers holding First or Second Class certificates	13%
Teachers holding Third Class certificates	63%
Teachers holding no certificate	24%

7. In 1939, at the outbreak of the Second World War, what do we find? Practically all the teachers in these schools held First or Second Class teaching certificates and were graduates of the University of Ottawa Normal School. This remarkable achievement had been accomplished in twelve years. Can there be better proof of its valuable contribution to the betterment of those schools, and of its efficiency? Dr. Amoss, formerly Superintendent of Professional Training for Ontario, is an independent and competent witness. He writes: "I have never concealed, not even before the Royal Commission, that in my opinion, the work accomplished by the Ottawa University Normal School was unsurpassed in the province."¹

8. Teaching successfully in the English-French Schools is a highly specialized task. Educationalists thoroughly conversant with the subject recognize the imperative need of a specialized normal school of the type of the University of Ottawa Normal School. Moreover, it enjoys a province-wide reputation; its students flock from the four corners of Ontario; and it has won the confidence and affection of French-speaking parents. They confide their sons and daughters to the institution with the assurance that their moral conduct will be supervised and that they will receive a sound pedagogical training. Were the University of Ottawa Normal School to be discontinued, parents would direct their children to other fields of employment; one could not find a better means of increasing the shortage of qualified teachers and of compelling boards to employ teachers poorly prepared for the difficult work of teaching in English-French Schools.

9. Certain high schools offer a special course in French to students who can speak the language and who have attained a proficiency therein equivalent to the standing in English on the high school entrance examination. The time allotted to such course should not be curtailed. The French language offers more difficulties than does the English language, and, therefore, requires at least as much study as that given to the latter if an adequate knowledge of it is to be obtained. Moreover, a number of such students will be teachers in English-French Schools. In order to teach French properly, they must have acquired at least a fair mastery of its grammar, idioms, and literature.

¹Letter from Dr. H. E. Amoss to Rev. Rene Lamoureux, under date of November 6, 1948.

10. It is gratifying to note, and I do so with pleasure, that, although some of the important details have remained misunderstood, my fellow-Commissioners have been most sympathetic in their approach to the study of the English-French School problem. I wish to mention, in particular, The Honourable Mr. Justice John A. Hope, Chairman of the Commission, and Dr. Sidney E. Smith, President of the University of Toronto.

(*signed*) HENRI SAINT-JACQUES

MEMORANDUM
BY
MR. W. H. CLARKE

2nd December, 1950.

Mr. Chairman:

In registering my dissent from the final results of their investigations as embodied in the Report of the majority, I feel I should express my admiration for the prodigious efforts of my colleagues on the Commission, with whom it has been a great and memorable privilege to have been associated. For many of them, the more than five years of deliberations have meant real personal sacrifice; their devotion to the task assigned to them is in the highest traditions of public service.

At some points it will be apparent that my reasons for dissent parallel those of the Commissioners who have submitted Minority Reports, but because of marked differences in point of view in other respects it seemed necessary to record my views separately.

I. Theory of Education

I must begin by dissociating myself entirely from those portions of the Report in which various theories and philosophies of education are enunciated, in particular in the following chapters: I. The Educational Scene; II. Aims of Education; IV. The Pupil's Growth and Progress; VI. Social, Spiritual, and Other Aspects of Education; and XV. Exceptional Children.

It is true that I find it difficult to discover the meaning of the jargon so often used in writing about educational concepts and objectives, but, in so far as I do understand the point of view, it would seem to me to be favourable to a progressive levelling-down of academic standards and a relaxation in mental tests and disciplines. There seems to be a tendency to disparage the value of inspiration in education—the inspiration which comes from having to face objectives beyond immediate attainment, from sustained effort towards a deeper understanding and appreciation of the best in our traditions and culture.

II. Promotion by Age Alone

In the reorganization of the programme into three divisions, elementary, secondary and further, as recommended in the Report, promotion from elementary to secondary will take place at age 12 and from secondary to further at age 16.

This is one of the most important recommendations of the Commission and should be recognized as such. I do not believe that its revolutionary nature has been sufficiently emphasized in the Report. It is proposed that the age of the pupil be the *only* factor in promotion from elementary to secondary schools. Every pupil in attendance at elementary schools, regardless of his attainments is to be automatically promoted to secondary school when he is approximately twelve years old. He may have kept pace with pupils of his own age or he may have lagged a year or two behind in his arithmetic, reading or spelling; that is no longer the determining factor. He may have been exceptionally bright in elementary school; until he is twelve he must remain with pupils of his age group. He may have been ill or otherwise prevented from regular attendance; at age 12 he leaves elementary school.

Enough has been said at other places in the Report about the present wide disparity in elementary schools between the attainments of the better than average pupils and those large numbers who fail to advance beyond the present Grade VI, even at ages 14 to 16. The Report itself points out: "Nearly two-thirds of all children were leaving elementary school without obtaining high school entrance [Grade VIII] standing (Chapter V)". At age 12, the disparity may well be even more marked since some at least of those who have made a poor showing at the beginning of elementary school will not have had the additional year or two in which to overtake the others.

Let us look for a moment at the new secondary school which will contain all the pupils of age 12 who have just been promoted to it. Some of these pupils will be at the level of the present Grade IV or V of elementary school. Others will be at the end of Grade VI. A third group will have been held back for a year or more, as under present conditions they would have passed Grade VIII at age 12-13. It is obvious therefore that it cannot be assumed that all these pupils of age 12 are ready to begin secondary school work.

To meet the situation it is proposed that pupils entering the new secondary school be immediately sorted out into several "streams" or levels of ability and attainment, and that there should be adaptations of the *core* subjects to meet the standards of attainment of each "stream" or level. I cannot accept the view of the Report that these adaptations or the provision of several "streams" in the new secondary school will meet this complex situation. It would seem to me that the multiplication of "streams", levels and adaptations will place an insuperable burden on the new secondary school. The proposed wide range of electives in the third and fourth years will increase that burden rather than lighten it. The inevitable result of this recommendation will, I fear, be to make of the new secondary school simply a continuation school, in which the present tendency to lower standards of achievement will be continued or even accelerated.

A school thus constituted will fail hopelessly. It will result in a *lengthening* of the elementary school programme to meet the needs of the pupils who are below average ability. At the same time, if it fails to take full advantage of the two years saved in elementary school and to continue the accelerated programme from age 12 on, it will penalize pupils of average and better than average ability. By attempting to meet both extremes the Report seems to me to fail to provide for either.

Provision should certainly be made for shortening the elementary school. This can best be done by attempting *less* and doing it *more efficiently* and thus enabling more pupils to complete the work of the elementary school satisfactorily by age 12.

For all pupils who have been unable to complete even the basic course in elementary school by age 12 there should be a senior elementary school, or whatever name is given to it, to meet their special requirements. By taking full advantage of a fresh start and by providing every encouragement and stimulus to these pupils it is expected that many of them, within a year or more, can be prepared for entrance to a secondary school. Any pupil who has failed to reach the required standard of attainment at a given stage should find it possible to overtake those pupils who have maintained a steady or accelerated pace throughout, and the organization of the schools should provide sufficient flexibility to encourage them to do so.

The new secondary school should provide for all the pupils who have completed satisfactorily the work of the elementary school. It should continue the accelerated programme already begun in elementary schools.

In the new secondary school as proposed in the Report, no provision apart from "enriched" courses—a vague descriptive term which is never very clearly or consistently defined—is made for the occasional gifted pupil who is capable of completing the required work in secondary school before age 16. In fact it would seem to be very difficult to discover what is the "required" work of the new secondary school wherein the time factor is of such paramount importance. Presumably the pupil at age 16 who fails to pass a terminal examination or a qualifying examination for entrance to the third stage is dropped altogether, since the aim is clearly stated to be to eliminate repeaters.

It would seem to me that insufficient evidence has been secured from outside the Province where promotion by age alone has been attempted. There may well be a danger that what is proposed is that we should in Ontario enter upon an experiment which has already been tried and discredited elsewhere.

III. *Subjects of Study in Secondary Schools*

I disagree most strongly with the recommendation that "occupations" be a compulsory subject throughout the four years of secondary school. Those who urge its importance hold that since the occupational world has

become more complex, the aim of education has changed and the teacher's responsibility has been broadened to include "all aspects of growth" in the pupil. I do not believe the public should be required to assume the financial burden of responsibility for providing up-to-date (and therefore changing) information about occupations and placement services. I believe, however, that the teachers of the regular school subjects, through their more frequent contacts with their pupils, may often prove to be better able to act as counsellors and mentors. There is no doubt in my mind that the time allotted for "occupations", namely one hour per week or 160 hours total out of the crowded schedule in secondary schools cannot possibly be justified. These hours can well be spent in projects directed towards improving the standard of achievement in English. See X below.

It would appear from the Report that if a pupil choose *one* of the following languages: Latin, German, Spanish, Greek, he cannot choose a *second*. Optional subjects in secondary school should include Latin *and* German *and* Spanish *and* Greek on a basis of equality with all other options.

IV. *Decentralization of the Control of Education*

Having declared in favour of decentralization of the control of education, which I strongly support, the Report is not consistent in its application of this most important principle. Two examples will illustrate:

1. The Report does not recommend the *mandatory* establishment of regional boards. There is no need to emphasize the weakness of this position. If decentralization is ever to be accomplished, it will be through larger units of administration fully autonomous within their local field, and responsible only to the central authority for maintaining uniform standards of achievement and efficient and equitable financing of the cost of education. In all other respects the local authority must be free if decentralization is to be achieved. According to the Report, even the supervision of instruction in the third stage (Junior Colleges) is to be *permanently* a function of the central authority.

2. In the proposed reorganization of the Department of Education the Report seems to me to perpetuate, if not actually to accelerate, the present tendencies towards expansion of the central authority. All the functions of the local authority are apparently duplicated within the reorganized central authority. It is not popular to suggest a reduction in the personnel of the civil service, but the necessary fortitude might have been shown if the Commission really favours decentralized control.

V. *A Central Advisory Council*

This is the term used in the Report to indicate a committee of representative laymen to be appointed to act as an advisory committee to the Minister of Education. It is not to be confused with the phrase "central authority" as used elsewhere in this statement. Five years on the Commission

have altered my earlier ideas about the wisdom of recommending the appointment of a central advisory council. I feel that the democratic control of education, as of any function of government, must be exercised through Ministers of the Crown, who may choose advisers and consultants at their pleasure, but who must remain free to accept or to reject any advice offered. The advantage to the Minister to be free at all times to seek the best advice available to him cannot be over-emphasized. On the other hand the duties and responsibilities assigned to the Council (a more or less permanent body) are so onerous as to make it difficult for capable and conscientious individuals to discharge them on a voluntary basis. It should be noted that it is not obligatory for the Minister to follow their recommendations, but he must permit the complete text of these recommendations and reports to be brought before the legislature without delay. Any divergence in point of view thus presented publicly will detract from the prestige and authority of the Minister. For this and other reasons the appointment of a Central Advisory Council could prove to be a dangerous abrogation of the democratic control of one of the most important functions of government.

VI. *Separate Schools*

I dissent from the Report in many of the recommendations respecting separate schools. It would seem to me that the Report does not give due weight to the implications of the statements of those who support separate schools nor does it recognize fully their determination to press unremittingly towards the objectives clearly stated in the briefs submitted by them. I am prepared to take the supporters of separate schools literally at their word when they say that they will never accept a partial settlement of the issue, since it is their unalterable conviction that the children of Roman Catholic parents ought to be educated from age 5 to 21 solely and exclusively in separate schools where the course of study is permeated with the principles of Roman Catholicism.

It is a matter of record that on 2 June, 1862, Egerton Ryerson, Chief Superintendent of Education, met with the Roman Catholic Vicar General of Kingston, the Rev. Mr. Cazeau, Secretary of the Archbishop of Quebec and Mr. Scott, a private member of the Legislature. Ryerson discussed with these three men the provisions of a Separate School Bill to be proposed by Scott. Ryerson believed that the ecclesiastics present accepted on behalf of the Roman Catholic Bishops of Toronto and Kingston and the Archbishop of Quebec (as representing the highest authorities of the Roman Catholic Church) the provisions of the Bill without question. Later that day, the four gentlemen named above waited on the Premier and informed him of the result of their consultation. Two copies of what Ryerson believed to be an agreement were made for Ryerson and Scott. This has been frequently referred to as the basis of the "pact of Confederation." Unfortu-

nately no formal agreement was, so far as I have been able to discover, ever signed and the fact of agreement having been reached and its finality have both been vociferously denied at intervals over the last seventy years, by the supporters of Roman Catholic separate schools.

What now remains to be considered, therefore, by the commissioners would seem to me to be: (1) a repudiated "agreement" on the "rights" and/or "privileges" enjoyed by the supporters of separate schools at the time of Confederation, and (2) the unequivocal statement that "Catholics can never accept undenominational religious teaching as satisfying their own consciences . . . Separate educational provisions must be made for Protestants and Catholics."

With these two paramount considerations uppermost in my mind, I am quite unable to believe that by limiting the elementary schools (both public and separate) to six years' duration, and proposing a new *common* secondary school for pupils of ages 12-16, the separate school question is solved.

I have carefully considered the alternatives proposed in briefs submitted to the Commission, including the suggestion that the future of separate schools be settled by a referendum. While it is likely that much bitterness would be aroused by a referendum, I have rejected it, not on that ground alone, but because I have come to believe that even a referendum would fail to settle the issue except temporarily. In other words, I do not believe that any *final* basis of agreement can be reached through a referendum, or by any other means. The only possibility of agreement would appear to me to be to concede to the present and future supporters of separate schools those privileges enjoyed by them at Confederation, but with the following provisos:

1. *Only those ratepayers who support public schools may send their children to public schools at any level or stage, i.e., so long as exemption is claimed from the payment of taxes in support of public schools the right to use the facilities of all common schools is forfeit.*

There is no evident intention on the part of the majority of the electorate to extend separate schools beyond the elementary stage (and it is clear that the legislature may determine where the elementary stage shall end), and there is no possibility of publicly-supported separate secondary schools. Therefore, the ratepayers who may, and do, choose to support separate schools must assume the full responsibility for the education of their children throughout the full term of compulsory education, first through separate elementary schools and later through private secondary schools. From the recent unprecedented expansion in the facilities for private Roman Catholic secondary education it would seem reasonable to suppose that the assumption of such a measure of responsibility has been foreseen and provided for in urban centres where the large proportion of the sup-

porters of separate schools reside. The children of the approximately two-thirds of Roman Catholic ratepayers who attend separate schools will thus be enabled to continue their education according to the "unalterable conviction" of their parents. The children of other Roman Catholic ratepayers and all other supporters of public schools will attend common schools. Each will (and must) be supported solely and exclusively by those ratepayers whose children are in attendance.

2. *No ratepayer who chooses to support separate schools may vote (or stand for election) for public school boards; no ratepayer who supports public schools may vote (or stand for election) for separate school boards.*

3. *No portion of the rates or taxes paid directly or indirectly in support of common schools elementary or secondary may be used to support separate schools. (This is a difficult proviso to enforce, but the means must be discovered to obviate entirely the present inequitable division of public funds whereby those who are not in favour of separate schools are forced unknowingly to contribute to their support.)*

4. *The payment of legislative grants must be based directly on the revenue from taxation derived from an equalized assessment of property owned by supporters of separate schools and by supporters of common schools.*

The figures in the Report for 1948 indicate a wide disparity in the assessment per pupil of average attendance between supporters of public and separate schools. In cities the average assessment per pupil as given in the Report is \$12,265 for public schools and \$3,398 for separate schools. Over the whole province the average assessment per pupil in public schools is \$7,845 as compared with \$2,487 per pupil in separate schools. While the Report expresses amazement at the ratio of three to one, the recommendation for an exhaustive enquiry and re-assessment if necessary should be more strongly urged. Payment on the basis of "approved costs" would seem to perpetuate the discrimination noted in 3 above.

VII. Schools in Which French is Used as a Language of Instruction and Communication

I believe that the use of French as a language of instruction and communication must be limited to the first three grades of elementary school if the pupils are to reach a comparable level of attainment with that of English-speaking pupils at the end of the sixth year.

I have great doubt of the wisdom of appointing two directors, one of French and the other of English instruction in these schools. The implication is that it is impossible to find one individual who is sufficiently proficient in both languages to command the respect of the teachers of French racial origin. I think this is an unsupported implication. The double appointment is unnecessary, from a consideration of the amount of work

involved, and it is unwise in that it will probably result in divided authority and confusion.

I think the Report is unnecessarily restrained in its criticism of the present "direction in exile" of the supervision of French Instruction, and of those in the Department of Education who have permitted (*a*) the continued absenteeism of the Supervisor from his office, and (*b*) the assumption by him of authority beyond his prerogatives. I am ashamed to note a recommendation that "the Supervisor of French Instruction be required to take up permanent residence within daily commuting distance of his office"!

VIII. *Teacher Training*

I am not in favour of Junior Colleges of Education as provided in the recommendations of the Report. Two of my fellow-Commissioners, Dr. Whitelock and Dr. Neelands, in their Minority Report, have expressed their view that teacher training ought to be exclusively a function of a university through faculties of education. I agree that this is a recommendation of major importance. The teacher-in-training will gain immeasurably from a year or more as a university student. His prestige and professional standing will be increased in proportion to his academic and cultural advancement. Able young men and women will, in this way, be drawn into the profession who will no longer look upon their professional training as a dead end, but as a step in the way towards a university degree.

The course offered in such a university faculty of education should be at least 90 per cent academic content (to be offered by the university staff in arts and science) to 10 per cent methodology (to be offered by the staff of the faculty of education).

In addition, and as an integral part of the graduate school of a university, there should be a Senior School of Education of which the entrance requirements are at least equivalent to those for post-graduate courses in other fields. The ultimate beneficiary of this proposal to widen the horizon of the teacher-in-training by integrating his course with that of other university students will be, of course, the child in school.

The proposed agreement as between the Minister of Education and the Governors of the University of Toronto should be so drawn as to provide a complete separation in function between teacher training and certification. Full control of and responsibility for the training of teachers should be vested in the University; the Minister should continue to exercise the right of certification. Appointments to the staff, administration and finance should be the responsibility of the Board of Governors on the recommendation of the President. Entrance requirements at undergraduate and graduate levels, courses, and academic and professional standards should be the exclusive responsibility of the Senate of the University.

See also under X below.

IX. *Finance*

(a) I am unable to subscribe to the recommendations contained in this section of the Report, because it would appear to me that those who do not support separate schools are to be forced into direct or indirect support of them. This appears to me to perpetuate the present discrimination in favour of the supporters of separate schools.

(b) The time has come for a thorough enquiry into the rising costs of education. Such an enquiry should seek to itemize the relative costs of providing for the fundamentals, commonly referred to as the *core* subjects and the varied activities and functions of a modern school which do not contribute directly to the teaching of these essential subjects. The enquiry might properly consider whether it is better to do less and do it excellently than to attempt to "educate the whole child" in "all aspects of growth" and fail to maintain those standards of achievement without which maturity of judgment is impossible of attainment. Scholarship is and always will be an important element in the mature personality. There is no substitute for it.

X. *English*

As it would appear to be generally true over the greater part of this continent that standards in facility in reading and in the use and appreciation of the English language are not being maintained in schools, it would appear to me most unfortunate that the Report fails to stress sufficiently the paramount importance of taking immediate steps to improve the teaching of English. For it is axiomatic that the first criterion of education must be a competence in the understanding and use of the language. Without a high level of ability to comprehend and communicate ideas all learning is barren and meaningless.

Among many excellent suggestions which have been brought forward I recommend the following:

(a) That English composition and English literature be compulsory in all courses of teacher training throughout the duration of such courses.

(b) That no teacher in secondary schools or Junior College be permitted to instruct a larger number than 100 pupils in English literature and/or English composition in any or all grades during any school year.

(c) That all teachers of English literature and/or composition in secondary schools and Junior Colleges be allowed, during regular school hours, not less than four minutes per pupil per week (free from all other assignments or responsibilities within the school) to be specifically set aside and used for individual interview with pupils to discuss with them written and other assignments.

In the present "over-crowded" curriculum, too scant attention is paid to the essential educative value of composition both oral and written. For some time too great emphasis has been placed upon oral and too little

upon written work (for its own contribution to accurate expression and as the basis of clear and coherent speech). Teachers of English, in the time allotted in most schools today, cannot possibly give proper attention to the marking of essays and other assignments; they are seldom allowed time within school hours for the equally important discussion at first hand and with individual pupils of their errors and difficulties. To attempt to teach English without frequent written assignments by which the pupil's progress may be evaluated is to fail to achieve any adequate return for the time and effort expended.

(d) That a committee of enquiry be instituted immediately to investigate and report to the Minister upon the present situation with respect to the teaching of English in elementary and secondary schools. To broaden the scope of this enquiry and to facilitate the thoroughness with which it is apparently necessary to investigate present standards and practice, it is suggested that the personnel of the committee of enquiry be composed of teachers of English, and of history, mathematics and science who have specialist standing in English as well.

XI. *Interim Report*

I wish to record at this time the dissent from the Interim Report which I registered at the time of its submission, because I felt that even as an emergency measure the lowering of standards would be prejudicial to the interests of the teaching profession and also to the welfare of the pupils.

It is impossible in a brief memorandum to deal with all the points at which I dissent from the Report; I have had to confine my statement to some of the more important.

(signed) W. H. CLARKE

APPENDICES
TO THE
REPORT OF THE ROYAL COMMISSION
ON
EDUCATION IN ONTARIO

- Appendix A: Briefs Submitted to the Royal Commission on Education
- Appendix B: Memoranda Submitted to the Royal Commission on
Education
- Appendix C: Witnesses Appearing Before the Royal Commission on
Education

APPENDIX A

BRIEFS

SUBMITTED TO THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON EDUCATION

<i>Brief Number</i>	<i>Submitted by</i>
1	Ontario Agricultural Commission of Inquiry
2	Corporation of the Town of Mimico (Educational Financing Committee)
3	P. A. McClelland, Chairman, The Board of Education, Leaside
4	Toronto Special Class Teachers' Association
5	The Ontario Property Owners Association and The Property Owners' Association of Toronto
6	The Ontario Association of the Deaf
7	Ontario Library Association
8	The Alumni of the Ontario Agricultural College
9	Ella K. Cork, Kiwanis Girls' Clubs, Toronto
10	The Editor-in-Chief of Text-Books, Ontario Department of Education
11	Special Education Section, Ontario Educational Association
12	The Rural School Section of the Ontario Trustees' and Ratepayers' Association, Ontario Educational Association
13	A. A. Mackinnon, Windsor
14	Dr. V. K. Greer, Chief Inspector of Public and Separate Schools, Ontario Department of Education
15	A. J. B. Gray, Deputy Minister of Municipal Affairs, Ontario
16	Ontario Citizens' Forum Council
17	George M. Cassie, South River
18	The Council of the United Counties of Stormont, Dundas and Glengarry
19	The Executive Council of the Cochrane Board of Trade
20	Lieut. R. J. Galloway, R.C.N.V.R., Toronto
21	C. Dudley Gaitskell, Director of Art, Ontario Department of Education
22	Kindergarten Section, Ontario Educational Association
23	Canadian Handicrafts Guild
24	The National Committee for Mental Hygiene (Canada)
25	National Federation of Kindergarten, Nursery School and Kindergarten-Primary Teachers
26	The Primary Section, Ontario Educational Association
27	C. R. Young, Dean, Faculty of Applied Science and Engineering, University of Toronto
28	Inter-Church Committee on Weekday Religious Education
29	The Ontario Vocational Guidance Association
30	Federation of Ontario Naturalists
31	The Toronto District Association of Teachers of Speech
32	Federated Women's Institutes of Ontario
33	The Canada and Newfoundland Education Association
34	The Ontario Music Teachers' Association
35	F. S. Rutherford, Director of Vocational Education, Ontario Department of Education
36	Ontario School Trustees' and Ratepayers' Association

*Brief
Number**Submitted by*

- 37 M. K. Inman, Director, Extension Department; E. G. Pleva, Assistant Professor of Geography and Geology; and M. A. Garland, Director, Community Life Training Institute, Middlesex County;—University of Western Ontario
- 38 Board of Trustees, First Township School Area of North York
- 39 The Committee on Teacher-Training of the Ontario School Inspectors' Association
- 40 Federation of Canadian Artists
- 41 School Attendance Branch, Ontario Department of Education
- 42 The Engineering Institute of Canada
- 43 United Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers of America,—C.I.O.—District Five Council
- 44 The Ontario Department of Education
- 45 Association for Religious Liberty
- 46 The Canadian Jewish Congress, Central Division
- 47 Dr. W. E. Blatz, Director, Institute of Child Study, University of Toronto
- 48 Joint Committee representing the Ontario Society of Biologists and the Natural Science Section, Ontario Educational Association
- 49 City of Ottawa Public School Board
- 50 City of Ottawa Public School Board
- 51 E. Stanley Ryerson, M.D., Director, School of Physical and Health Education, University of Toronto
- 52 The Committee on the Selection and Training of Rural Teachers of the Ontario School Inspectors' Association
- 53 The Sculptors' Society of Canada, Ontario Branch
- 54 The Canadian Geographical Society
- 55 The Community Life Training Institute, Barrie
- 56 School Health Section, Ontario Educational Association
- 57 The Ontario Teachers Association of Art and Crafts Section, Ontario Educational Association
- 58 Canada—United States Committee on Education
- 59 Lieut. H. Griffin, Toronto
- 60 Miss Anne W. Cameron, Inspector of Vocational Education, Ontario Department of Education
- 61 Canadian Association for Adult Education
- 62 (Withdrawn)
- 63 Norman Davies, Inspector of Agricultural Classes, Ontario Department of Education
- 64 Board of Christian Education, The United Church of Canada
- 65 Ontario Apprenticeship Committee for Building Trades
- 66 D. W. Gordon, Inspector of Industrial Arts and Crafts, Ontario Department of Education
- 67 L. S. Beattie, Inspector of Vocational Education, Ontario Department of Education
- 68 The Urban School Inspectors' Association of Ontario
- 69 The Ontario Educational Association
- 70 Ontario Association of Architects
- 71 Science Teachers' Association, Ontario Educational Association
- 72 Toronto Board of Education

<i>Brief Number</i>	<i>Submitted by</i>
73	Joint Group of Examiners in English Literature and Composition for the Ontario Department of Education
74	W. J. Morrison, Superintendent, Ontario School for the Deaf
75	Music Section, Ontario Educational Association
76	The National Society of the Deaf and the Hard of Hearing
77	The Church of England in the Ecclesiastical Province of Ontario
78	The Council of the Corporation of the Township of Scarborough
79	The Toronto District Conference, Inspectors—Normal School Staff, Ontario School Inspectors' Association
80	The Law Society of Upper Canada
81	Federation of Textile Technical Associations of Canada
82	Committee on Selection and Training of Teachers, Ontario School Inspectors' Association
83	Committee on Rural School Education, Ontario School Inspectors' Association
84	Committee on School Buildings, Ontario School Inspectors' Association
85	Committee on School Costs, Ontario School Inspectors' Association
86	The Personnel Committee, Ontario School Inspectors' Association, Elementary Division
87	High School Inspectors, Ontario Department of Education
88	Committee on Textbooks, Ontario School Inspectors' Association
89	Committee on Adult Education, Ontario School Inspectors' Association
90	Committee on Research, Ontario School Inspectors' Association
91	Hamilton Board of Education
92	The Association of Ontario Mayors and Reeves
93	Dr. W. J. Dunlop, Director, Department of University Extension, University of Toronto
94	The Collegiate and Vocational Institute Board of the Township of Teck and The Advisory Vocational Committee of the Board, Kirkland Lake
95	Toronto Public Library Board
96	The Kiwanis Club of North Toronto (Committee on Vocational Guidance)
97	Ontario Historical Society
98	Horace Brown, President, South Pickering Ratepayers Association
99	Dr. H. E. Amoss, Director of Professional Training, Ontario Department of Education
100	Dr. W. J. Dunlop, Chairman, The Universities Adult Education Board for Ontario
101	Board of The Toronto Conservatory of Music
102	"Visites Interprovinciales"
103	Judge G. W. Morley, Owen Sound
104	National Council, Young Women's Christian Association
105	Mrs. George H. Kidd, McKenzie Island
106	Frontier College, Toronto
107	Training Section, Ontario Educational Association
108	The Art Gallery of Toronto
109	Board of Trustees of the Royal Ontario Museum
110	Toronto Teachers' Wives' Association, Toronto Secondary School Masters' Wives' Association
111	Technical Section, Ontario Educational Association

<i>Brief Number</i>	<i>Submitted by</i>
112	Major J. P. Cowles, Ontario Department of Education
113	The Inter-Church Committee on Protestant-Roman Catholic Relations
114	English and History Association of the Province of Ontario
115	Mathematics and Physics Section, Ontario Educational Association
116	Home Economics Section, Ontario Educational Association
117	Association of Ontario Public School Trustees and Ratepayers
118	Judge G. W. Morley, Owen Sound
119	Rev. T. F. Summerhayes, Toronto
120	The Department of Classics, University of Toronto
121	Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario
122	The Scandinavian-Canadian Club
123	College and Secondary School Department, Ontario Educational Association
124	The Board of Education of the City of London
125	Classical Section, Ontario Educational Association
126	Committee on Juvenile Delinquency, Toronto Assistant Masters' Association
127	Lewis Duncan, K.C., Toronto
128	A Private Committee on Education (Chairman, Miss Evelyn McDonald)
129	The Senate of Victoria University
130	The Toronto Philharmonic Orchestra and The Toronto Musical Protective Association
131	Administrative Council of the University of Western Ontario
132	Royal Canadian Institute
133	Ontario Women's Liberal Association
134	The Canadian Polish Congress
135	The Ontario Federation of Home and School Associations, Incorporated
136	Czechoslovak National Alliance
137	The Institute of Racial and Cultural Research
138	George Macdonald, Toronto
139	The Educational Fellowship of the Township of East York
140	Ontario Secondary Schools Headmasters' Association
141	Canadian Library Council, Incorporated
142	The Science Teachers' Association of Ontario
143	Faculties of Arts and Divinity, Trinity College, Toronto
144	Nursery School Committee and Day Nursery Committee, Welfare Council, Toronto
145	Toronto and Suburban Separate School Board
146	The Ontario Catholic Education Council
147	Ontario Provincial Council of Women
148	Canadian Headmasters' Association (Ontario members)
149	The Federation of Russian-Canadians
150	Gus Harris, Toronto
151	Urban School Trustees Association of the Province of Ontario and The Ontario Association of School Business Officials
152	Provincial Advisory Committee for Building Trades
153	Dr. H. E. Amoss, Director of Professional Training, Ontario Department of Education
154	The Ontario Provincial Executive and the Executive of the Trades and Labour Congress of Canada
155	Toronto Kindergarten Association

<i>Brief Number</i>	<i>Submitted by</i>
156	Ontario Educational Association
157	Miss Glorianna Martineau, Toronto
158	Percy William Lambert, Toronto
159	Rev. Harold G. Salton, Toronto
160	A. Maclaren, Director, Ontario Farm Service Force
161	The Toronto Industrial Arts and Crafts Teachers' Association
162	Physical Education (Women) Section, Ontario Educational Association
163	Brig.-Gen. G. S. Cartwright, C.B., C.M.G., Toronto
164	Edwin C. Guillet, Toronto District, Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation
165	Committee of Governors of Upper Canada College, Trinity College School, Ridley College, and St. Andrews College
166	The Ontario Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals
167	The Theatral Arts Committee of the Ontario Educational Association
168	Canadian Manufacturers' Association, Ontario Division
169	The Ontario Teachers' Federation
170	Physical Education (Men) Section, Ontario Educational Association
171	The Board of Trustees of the Roman Catholic Separate Schools for the City of Ottawa
172	L'Association Canadienne-Française d'Education d'Ontario
173	Toronto Humane Society
174	The National Council for Canadian-Soviet Friendship
175	Labor-Progressive Party, Ontario Committee
176	Community Welfare Council of Ontario
177	Leslie P. Myers, Toronto
178	Audio-Visual Education Committee, Toronto Board of Education
179	Dr. Neil F. Morrison, Windsor
180	Educational Committee, Book Publishers Branch, Board of Trade, City of Toronto
181	Graphics International Limited, Toronto
182	C. C. Ashcroft, Principal, Ontario Training College for Technical Teachers
183	Ukrainian Canadian Committee, Ontario Division
184	Ontario Temperance Federation
185	Prof. Wm. Angus, Director of Dramatics, Queen's University
186	Ontario Sanatorium Teachers Association
187	H. J. Vallentyne, Superintendent, Ontario School for the Blind, Brantford
188	Ontario Division of the Canadian National Institute for the Blind
189	The Inspectors of Northern Ontario
190	Mrs. Gordon D. Conant, Provincial Commissioner for Ontario, The Canadian Girl Guides Association
191	W. J. Judd, Public School Inspector, Port Arthur
192	Lachlan F. MacRae, Librarian, Fort William Public Library
193	Council for Social Service of the Diocese of Toronto, Church of England in Canada
194	Mrs. E. R. Patrick, Port Arthur
195	Fred Sloman, Canadian National Railway School Car 1, Capreol
196	The Catholic Bishops of Ontario
197	Dr. Frank N. Walker, Toronto
198	Canadian Psychological Association
199	The United Steel Workers of America

<i>Brief Number</i>	<i>Submitted by</i>
200	The Workers' Educational Association
201	The Joint Legislation Committee of the Grand Orange Lodges of Ontario East and West
202	A Group of Women Inspectors, Supervisors and Women Normal School Masters and Instructors
203	Welfare Council Department, United Welfare Chest
204	The Ontario Commercial Teachers' Association
205	The Public School Supporters' League
206	St. Michael's College, Toronto
207	Ontario School Inspectors' Association
208	Ontario Co-operative Union
209	The League of the Empire, Canadian Branch
210	Northern Ontario Associated Boards of Trade, Sub-committee on Rural Education in Northern Ontario
211	Educational Committee, Ontario Federation of Agriculture
212	The Fellowship of Reconciliation, Canadian Section
213	Branksome Hall, Toronto
214	H. Thompson, Sheriff of Thunder Bay
215	The Inspectors of Northern and North-Western Ontario
216	Henry Swain, Nipigon
217	The Township School Area Board of the Municipality of Machin (Kenora District)
218	The Lakehead Teachers' Council
219	Public School Teachers' Federation of the Town of Kapuskasing
220	Mrs. E. T. Goring, Kapuskasing
221	The Board of Education of the Municipality of Iroquois Falls
222	The Board of Education of the Municipality of Iroquois Falls
223	J. A. D. Lafond (Chairman); Colombe Girard; Jeanne d'Arc Schryer; Paul-Emile Dignard; Soeur S. Thomas-de-Galilée, a.s.v.; Soeur Hélène-de-la-Rédemption, a.s.v.; Soeur Marie-du-Saint-Sacrement, a.s.v.; Soeur Rita de Cascia; Jean L. Duchesneau (Committee representing the teachers of Hearst)
224	A Group of Citizens of Timmins
225	Board of Public School Trustees, School Section 2A, Township of Tisdale, Schumacher
226	Timmins High and Vocational School Boards
227	Timmins Public School Teachers' Association
228	C. S. Gibson, Timmins
229	Board of Public School Trustees of the Township School Area of Teck, Kirkland Lake
230	Alice Hornby, Trustee, Savard Consolidated School
231	Public School Trustees of Town of Matheson
232	Kenneth Young, Assistant Director, Ontario Adult Education Board
233	J. H. Kennedy, Inspector of Public Schools, Kirkland Lake
234	Timiskaming Educational Association
235	Timiskaming Educational Association
236	Haileybury High School Board
237	New Liskeard Public School Board
238	New Liskeard High School Board
239	Haileybury Separate School Board
240	Wm. F. Stones, Mayor of North Bay

<i>Brief Number</i>	<i>Submitted by</i>
241	North Bay Separate School Board
242	Webbwood Separate School Trustees and Supporters
243	Cache Bay Separate School Board
244	The School Inspectors of the South-Eastern Districts of Northern Ontario on behalf of Rural Trustees of those Districts
245	W. G. Bulbrook, North Bay
246	R. J. McAndrew, Sacred Heart College, Sudbury
247	Temagami Board of Trustees
248	The Board of Education, Bracebridge
249	Trustees of the Morrison Township School Board
250	Laird and McDonald Township School Area Boards
251	Tarentorus Township Public School Board
252	North Bay Collegiate Institute and Vocational School Board
253	North Bay Public School Board
254	Trustees and Supporters of St. Patrick's Separate School, Kearney
255	A. V. Waters, K.C., Cochrane
256	Mrs. Robert Sollman, Burk's Falls
257	Massey Separate School Trustees and Supporters
258	Mrs. Gisela Commanda, Toronto

APPENDIX B

MEMORANDA SUBMITTED TO THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON EDUCATION

<i>Number of Memorandum</i>	<i>Submitted by</i>
1	The Canadian Jewish Congress
2	The Ministerial Association of Dresden, Ontario
3	A committee representing the Municipalities of the Town of Dundas, the Township of East Flamboro, the Township of Binbrook, the Township of Saltfleet; and the Dundas Board of Education, the Waterdown High School Board, the Binbrook High School Board, and the Saltfleet High School Board.
4	The Geraldton High School Board
5	F. P. Gavin, formerly Principal, Ontario Training College for Technical Teachers, Hamilton
6	S. B. Rutherford, Principal, Nakina Public School
7	The Landscape Section of the Department of Horticulture, Ontario Agricultural College, Guelph
8	The Federation of Canadian Artists, Ontario Region
9	The St. Thomas Board of Education
10	The Orillia Public Library Board
11	The Trades and Labor Congress of Canada
12	Father Ph. Cornellier, O.M.I., Rector, University of Ottawa
13	William Williams, Assistant Administrator, Canadian Legion Edu- cational Services, Camp Borden
14	Province of Quebec Department of Education, Educational Survey, 1941-1942
15	The Staff, North Bay College
16	The Senate, Queen's University
17	The Ontario School Trustees' and Ratepayers' Association
18	The Ontario School Trustees' and Ratepayers' Association
19	F. J. Bondy, Amherstburg
20	The Brantford Board of Education
21	The Community Life Training Institute, Barrie
22	Prepared for The Royal Commission on Education
23	The Windsor Separate School Board
24	L. V. Bell, Haileybury
25	F. H. Brigden, Brigden's Limited, Toronto
26	Mrs. D. Bradford, Port Arthur
27	The Health League of Canada
28	The St. John Ambulance Association
29	The Council of The Bishop Strachan School
30	The Board of Governors, Lakefield Preparatory School

<i>Number of Memorandum</i>	<i>Submitted by</i>
31	Harry Greb, Collingwood
32	The Institute of Chartered Accountants of Ontario
33	The Public Welfare Committee of the Women's Law Association of Ontario
34	F. J. Doyle, Secretary-Treasurer, Separate School Board, Portsmouth
35	H. E. Totton, Principal, Junior High School, Village of Forest Hill Schools
36	The Middlesex County Federation of Agriculture
37	The Ontario Research Commission, Toronto
38	The Corporation of the Township of York
39	Rev. E. R. McLean, Secretary, Inter-Church Committee on Week-day Religious Education
40	The Education Council of Windsor
41	B. P. Skey, Instructor in Russian, Evening Tutorial Classes, Extension Department, University of Toronto
42	Mathematics and Physics Section, Ontario Educational Association
43	Classical Section, Ontario Educational Association
44	Norman B. Baird, Toronto

APPENDIX C

WITNESSES

APPEARING BEFORE THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON EDUCATION¹

<i>Name of Witness</i>	<i>Organization Represented or Position Held at the Time of First Appearance</i>
1. D. W. Acheson	Staff, Haileybury Mining Institute
2. G. D. Adams	Board of Education, Iroquois Falls
3. W. B. Adams	Audio-Visual Education Committee, Toronto Board of Education
4. Mrs. G. Agnew	The Ontario Federation of Home and School Associations, Incorporated
5. Miss W. Alston	Critic Teacher, Harbord Collegiate Institute, Toronto
6. J. G. Althouse	Chief Director of Education, Department of Education
7. V. N. Ames	Committee on Text Books, Ontario School In- spectors' Association
8. H. E. Amoss	Director of Professional Training, Department of Education
9. J. W. Ansley	Ontario Teachers' Federation
10. H. J. Armstrong	Ontario Commercial Teachers' Association
11. E. R. Arthur	Committee on Planning, Construction and Equip- ment of Schools in Ontario
12. F. C. Asbury	High School Inspector, Department of Education
13. N. B. Baird	Teacher, York Memorial Collegiate Institute, York Township
14. Miss H. B. Baggs	Kindergarten Section, Ontario Educational Asso- ciation
15. M. Baldwin	The Art Gallery of Toronto
16. C. S. Band	The Art Gallery of Toronto
17. Miss F. J. Barsby	Teacher, School Section 10, Chinguacousy Town- ship
18. W. E. Bastedo	The Public School Supporters' League
19. N. Bates	Graphics International Limited, Toronto
20. E. C. Beacom	Normal School Masters' Association
21. Mrs. E. Beattie	The Ontario School Trustees' and Ratepayers' Association
22. H. R. Beattie	Ontario Vocational Guidance Association
23. L. S. Beattie	Ontario School Inspectors' Association
24. R. R. Beattie	The Timmins Public School Teachers' Association
25. J. M. Belanger	High and Vocational School Board, Timmins
26. Rev. G. Belcourt	Sacred Heart College, Sudbury
27. L. R. Bell	The Ontario Music Teachers' Association
28. H. Bennett	The Senate of Victoria University, Toronto
29. R. F. Bennett	Ontario Teachers' Federation
30. W. J. Bennett	St. Michael's College, Toronto

¹An asterisk indicates the witness appeared as a private citizen rather than one representing some organization or official position.

<i>Name of Witness</i>	<i>Organization Represented or Position Held at the Time of First Appearance</i>
31. R. J. Bergin	Ontario Teachers' Federation
32. G. C. Bernard	Canadian Manufacturers' Association
33. K. S. Bernhardt	Canadian Psychological Association
34. F. C. Biehl	Normal School Masters' Association
35. Miss C. Binnie	Toronto Special Class Teachers' Association
36. A. H. Birmingham	Joint Legislation Committee of the Grand Orange Lodges of Ontario East and West
37. H. H. Bishop	Toronto Conservatory of Music
38. G. Blackford	Physical Education Section, Ontario Educational Association
39. C. A. Blackstone	Physical Education Section, Ontario Educational Association
40. W. E. Blatz	Director, Institute of Child Study, University of Toronto
41. Mrs. E. Blois	Ontario Committee, Labor-Progressive Party
42. H. Bolingbroke	Committee on Adult Education, Ontario School Inspectors' Association
43. J. Bone	Ontario Property Owners Association
44. H. Borden	Ontario Association of the Deaf
45. H. Bowers	Principal, Normal School, Stratford
46. P. A. Boyce	Principal, Schumacher Public School
47. E. W. Bradwin	Principal, Frontier College
48. D. Brousseau	Principal, Kapuskasing High School
49. C. A. Brown	Chairman, Teachers' and Inspectors' Superannua- tion Commission
50. G. W. Brown	Ontario Historical Society
51. H. Brown	South Pickering Ratepayers Association
52. H. W. Brown	Public School Inspector, formerly at Timmins
53. W. T. Brown	A Private Committee on Education
54. J. W. Buckley	The Trades and Labour Congress of Canada
55. W. G. Bulbrook*	North Bay, Ontario
56. W. H. Bulger	Separate School Inspector (North Bay)
57. W. G. Bunker	Ontario Association of School Business Officials
58. Miss A. Cameron	Home Economics Section, Ontario Educational Association
59. Miss R. Campbell	Physical Education Section, Ontario Educational Association
60. Mrs. W. C. Campbell	The Ontario Federation of Home and School Associations, Incorporated
61. W. K. Campbell	Grants Branch, Department of Education
62. C. F. Cannon	Superintendent of Elementary Education, De- partment of Education
63. E. P. Carney	Federation of Textile Technical Associations of Canada
64. Miss H. Carr	Ontario Citizens' Forum
65. W. S. Carr	Public School Board, New Liskeard
66. C. C. Carrothers	Urban School Trustees Association
67. C. D. Carruthers	Committee on Planning, Construction and Equip- ment of Schools in Ontario
68. O. K. Carruthers	Science Teachers' Association, Ontario Educa- tional Association

<i>Name of Witness</i>	<i>Organization Represented or Position Held at the Time of First Appearance</i>
69. R. Cassie	Public School Inspector, Parry Sound
70. H. Cassels	Committee of Governors of Little Big Four
71. R. Charbonneau	Association Canadienne-Française d'Education d'Ontario
72. P. A. Child	The Faculty of Trinity College
73. Miss V. Chowen	The Primary Section, Ontario Education Asso- ciation
74. Mrs. W. H. Clark	Ontario Committee, Canadian Youth Association
75. Miss J. Clement	Special Education Section, Ontario Educational Association
76. Rev. A. C. Cochrane	Association for Religious Liberty
77. Mrs. A. Colerick	National Council of Y.W.C.A.
78. J. J. Connolly	Separate School Board, Ottawa
79. J. T. Cook	Classical Section, Ontario Educational Association
80. B. R. Coon	Committee on Planning, Construction and Equip- ment of Schools in Ontario
81. E. A. Corbett	Canadian Association for Adult Education
82. R. Corbett	Separate School Board, North Bay
83. Mrs. S. Cork	Executive Director of Girls' Work, Kiwanis Club, Toronto
84. G. A. Cornish	The Inter-Church Committee on Protestant- Roman Catholic Relations
85. J. H. Couke	Critic Teacher, Humberstone Collegiate Institute, Toronto
86. J. P. Cowles	Teachers' and Inspectors' Superannuation Com- mission
87. Miss H. Cram	Ontario Teachers' Federation
88. H. M. Creighton	Physical Education Section, Ontario Educational Association
89. A. C. Croal	Assistant Professor, College of Education
90. G. G. Croskery	Ontario Teachers' Federation
91. I. H. Crowell	Canadian Handicraft Guilds
92. Mrs. F. Crowther	Welfare Council Department, United Welfare Chest
93. H. G. Crozier	English and History Section, Ontario Educational Association
94. Miss E. M. Cryderman	Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario
95. Rev. J. C. D'Aigle	Separate School Board, Cache Bay
96. G. M. Dallyn	Canadian Geographical Society
97. A. R. Davidson	Ontario School Inspectors' Association
98. Mrs. B. Davis	Nursery School and Day Nursery Committees of the Welfare Council, United Welfare Chest
99. N. Davies	Inspector of Agricultural Classes, Department of Education
100. W. Davies	Ontario Teachers' Federation
101. Miss L. H. DeLaporte	Assistant Inspector of Auxiliary Classes, Depart- ment of Education
102. J. S. Denison	The Law Society of Upper Canada
103. J. D. Deyell	Training Section, Ontario Educational Association
104. C. H. Dickinson	Book Steward, United Church Publishing House

<i>Name of Witness</i>	<i>Organization Represented or Position Held at the Time of First Appearance</i>
105. Miss G. Dickson	National Federation Kindergarten, Nursery School and Kindergarten-Primary Teachers
106. P. W. Diebel	Ontario Teachers' Federation
107. J. Dillon	Toronto and Suburban Separate School Board
108. B. C. Diltz	Professor, Ontario College of Education
109. R. Dilworth	Physical Education Section, Ontario Educational Association
110. Mrs. F. W. Doan	The Ontario Federation of Home and School Associations, Incorporated
111. Miss L. A. Dobson	Teachers' and Inspectors' Superannuation Commission
112. Miss G. Docter	Physical Education Section, Ontario Educational Association
113. E. L. Dodington	Committee on Planning, Construction and Equipment of Schools in Ontario
114. F. L. Dolson	Assessment Department, Toronto Board of Education
115. H. T. Donaldson	College and Secondary School Department, Ontario Educational Association
116. J. L. Duchesneau	Teachers of Hearst and District
117. G. L. Duffin	Executive Assistant, Department of Education
118. D. A. Dunlop	The Trades and Labour Congress of Canada
119. Miss F. Dunlop	School Psychologist and Supervisor of Special Classes, Ottawa
120. J. R. Dymond	Board of Trustees, Royal Ontario Museum
121. R. O. Earl	College and Secondary School Department, Ontario Educational Association
122. M. Easson	City of Ottawa Public School Board
123. J. A. Easton	Technical Adviser, Department of Education
124. G. N. Edwards	Public School Inspector, Stratford
125. W. A. Edwards	Chairman, Educational Financing Committee (Mimico)
126. Rev. B. E. Ellard	Ontario Association of the Deaf
127. H. E. Elborn	Principal, Normal School, Toronto
128. Miss C. Elliott	Toronto District Association of Teachers of Speech
129. G. E. Evans	College and Secondary School Department, Ontario Educational Association
130. A. W. Ewing	Director of the Education of the Deaf, University of Manchester
131. Mrs. A. W. Ewing	Assistant Director of the Education of the Deaf, University of Manchester
132. Rev. J. A. Feeney	Ontario Catholic Education Council
133. Rabbi A. L. Feinberg	Central Region, Canadian Jewish Congress
134. R. Fennell	Board of Trustees, Royal Ontario Museum
135. G. R. Fenwick	The Ontario Music Teachers' Association
136. H. B. Fetterly	Association of Ontario Public School Trustees and Ratepayers
137. Miss N. D. Fidler	Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario
138. D. R. Fleming*	New Liskeard High School Board

<i>Name of Witness</i>	<i>Organization Represented or Position Held at the Time of First Appearance</i>
139. Mrs. D. R. Fleming	New Liskeard, Ontario
140. Miss C. Ford	Directress of Professional Training, Ontario School for the Deaf
141. C. J. Foster	Civil Service Commissioner for Ontario
142. T. O. Fowler	Vocational School Inspector, Department of Edu- cation
143. J. C. Fraser	Teacher, Lawrence Park Collegiate Institute, Toronto
144. C. H. Fuller	Business Administrator and Secretary Treasurer, Toronto Board of Education
145. A. Gaine	Comptroller, University of Toronto
146. C. D. Gaitskell	Provincial Supervisor of Art
147. H. L. Gossard	Ontario Commercial Teachers' Association
148. Miss C. L. Gates	National Council of the Y.W.C.A.
149. R. Gauthier	Director of French Instruction, Department of Education
150. C. F. Gibson*	Timmins, Ontario
151. J. Gillespie	Technical Section, Ontario Educational Associa- tion
152. R. Gladish	Physical Education Section, Ontario Educational Association
153. C. C. Goldring	Urban School Inspectors' Association of Ontario
154. D. W. Gordon	Inspector of Industrial Arts and Crafts, Depart- ment of Education
155. Mrs. E. T. Goring*	Kapuskasing, Ontario
156. D. Graham	Ontario Citizens' Forum
157. A. G. Grant	Mayor of New Liskeard
158. A. J. Gray	Deputy-Minister, Department of Municipal Affairs
159. G. L. Gray	Ontario School Inspectors' Association
160. W. J. Greening	Separate School Inspector, Port Arthur
161. V. K. Greer	Superintendent of Elementary Education, De- partment of Education
162. Rev. L. Gregory	Inter-Church Committee on Weekday Religious Education
163. H. C. Griffith	The Headmasters' Association
164. E. C. Guillet	Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation
165. Miss N. Hackett	Ontario Teachers' Federation
166. D. Hallam	Secretary of the Primary Textiles Institute, Fed- eration of Textile Associations of Ontario
167. Miss F. Halliday	Master, Toronto Normal School
168. P. K. Hambly	College and Secondary School Department, On- tario Educational Association
169. M. H. Hanlan	Board of Public School Trustees, Matheson
170. W. E. Hanna	Ontario Secondary School Headmasters' Asso- ciation
171. E. A. Hardy	The League of the Empire
172. Rev. B. W. Harrigan	Ontario Teachers' Federation
173. G. Harris*	Toronto, Ontario
174. Miss E. Harrison	The Board of Education, London, Ontario
175. C. W. Hart	Association for Religious Liberty

<i>Name of Witness</i>	<i>Organization Represented or Position Held at the Time of First Appearance</i>
176. F. J. Hawes	Director of Apprenticeship, Ontario Department of Labour
177. P. Haworth	Federation of Canadian Artists, Ontario Region
178. Rev. F. R. Hendershot	Board of Christian Education, The United Church of Canada
179. S. H. Henry	Secretary, Teachers' and Inspectors' Superannuation Commission
180. Mrs. G. C. Hewson	The Ontario Federation of Home and School Associations, Incorporated
181. F. F. Hicks	Ontario Vocational Guidance Association
182. L. L. Hill*	New Liskeard, Ontario
183. Rev. R. A. Hiltz	Department of Religious Education, The Church of England in Canada
184. Miss M. L. Hockin	Ontario Farm Service Force
185. A. Hodgins	Ontario Association of School Business Officials
186. Miss N. Hodgins	Ontario Teachers' Federation
187. D. G. Hogan	Board of Trustees of the Roman Catholic Separate Schools of the Town of Haileybury
188. Miss M. Hollister	School Health Section, Ontario Educational Association
189. S. D. Holmes	Editor-in-Chief of Text-Books of the Department of Education
190. T. R. Holmes	The Ontario Commercial Teachers' Association
191. M. M. Hood	The Ontario Agricultural Commission of Inquiry
192. A. G. Hooper	Superintendent of Secondary Education, Department of Education
193. Mrs. A. Hornby	Public School Trustees of Savard Consolidated School
194. W. W. Howell	Township School Area Board of the Township of Machin
195. C. Howitt	Toronto District Conference of Inspectors and Normal School Staff
196. J. E. Huggins	The Ontario Association of School Business Officials
197. P. M. Hulse	Urban School Trustees Association
198. G. Hurst	Assessment Department, City of Toronto
199. A. G. Irving	High and Vocational School Board, Timmins
200. Miss G. Irwin	Classical Section, Ontario Educational Association
201. Miss J. Ives	Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario
202. C. S. Jackson	United Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers of America, District Five Council
203. Miss T. Jackson	Critic Teacher, Strathcona Public School, Hamilton
204. W. C. James	A Private Committee on Education
205. Rev. A. C. Jamieson	Dresden Ministerial Association
206. W. A. Jennings	High School Inspectors Division, Ontario School Inspectors' Association
207. G. S. Johnson	Public School Inspector, Bracebridge
208. R. A. Johnston	Normal School Masters' Association
209. W. J. Judd	Public School Inspector, Port Arthur
210. J. B. Kay	Urban School Trustees Association

<i>Name of Witness</i>	<i>Organization Represented or Position Held at the Time of First Appearance</i>
211. H. W. Kennedy	Public School Principal, Matheson
212. J. H. Kennedy	Public School Inspector, Kirkland Lake
213. W. A. Kenyon	College and Secondary School Department, Ontario Educational Association
214. Mrs. G. A. Kerr	Canadian Library Council
215. D. E. Kerr-Lawson	Educational Committee, Collegiate and Vocational Institute Board, Township of Teck
216. P. A. Ketchum	Headmasters' Association
217. D. J. Kidd	Ontario Association of the Deaf
218. R. H. King	Classical Section, Ontario Educational Association
219. H. R. Kingston	President, Ontario Educational Association
220. J. H. Kinkead	Public School Inspector, Goderich
221. G. A. Klinck	College and Secondary School Department, Ontario Educational Association
222. E. B. Lally	National Society of the Deaf and Hard of Hearing
223. Rev. R. Lamoureux	Principal, University of Ottawa Normal School
224. Miss M. Langford	Ontario Teachers' Federation
225. C. A. Lapp	Committee on Teacher-Training, Ontario School Inspectors' Association
226. D. A. Lapp	Public School Inspector, Fort Frances
227. J. E. Laughlin	Committee on Juvenile Delinquency, Toronto Assistant Masters' Association
228. Miss L. Leveque	Ontario Teachers' Federation
229. A. C. Lewis	Dean, Ontario College of Education
230. E. P. Lewis	Director of Mental Hygiene, City of Toronto Department of Health
231. Miss R. Lewis	Toronto District Association of Teachers of Speech
232. R. B. Liddy	Canadian Psychological Association
233. W. Line	The National Committee for Mental Hygiene
234. Sir Richard Livingstone	Oxford University, England
235. H. J. Lockett	Normal School Masters' Association
236. J. A. Long	Educational Research Department, Ontario College of Education
237. Miss F. Loring	Ontario Branch, Sculptors' Society of Canada
238. T. R. Loudon	President, Royal Canadian Institute
239. A. B. Lucas	The Board of Education, London, Ontario
240. G. D. Lyons	Assistant Registrar, Department of Education
241. F. W. MacBeth	Federation of Textile Technical Associations of Canada
242. D. W. MacDonald	Principal, Centennial Road School, Scarboro
243. G. Macdonald	Teacher, Western Technical-Commercial School, Toronto
244. Miss N. MacDonald	Toronto Special Class Teachers' Association
245. R. L. MacDonald	Public School Teachers' Federation of the Town of Kapuskasing
246. J. M. Macdonnell	A Private Committee on Education
247. Rev. A. MacGowan	Ontario Association of the Deaf
248. F. R. MacKelcan	The Art Gallery of Toronto
249. Miss G. Mackenzie	Special Education Section, Ontario Educational Association

<i>Name of Witness</i>	<i>Organization Represented or Position Held at the Time of First Appearance</i>
250. L. M. Mackenzie	Headmasters' Association
251. R. H. Macklem	Public School Inspector, Belleville
252. A. Maclaren	Ontario Farm Service Force
253. A. A. MacLeod	Ontario Committee, Labor-Progressive Party
254. A. K. MacMillan	The Council of the United Counties of Stormont, Dundas and Glengarry
255. W. B. MacMurray	Headmaster, University of Toronto Schools
256. W. MacPhee	The Public School Supporters' League
257. L. J. MacRae	Librarian, Fort William Public Library
258. H. H. Madill	Ontario Association of Architects
259. N. F. Mallon	Toronto Public Library Board
260. H. E. Manning	Property Owners' Association of Toronto and Ontario Property Owners Association
261. Miss R. Marlow	The Primary Section, Ontario Educational As- sociation
262. Miss G. Martineau*	Toronto, Ontario
263. Miss J. Masten	Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario
264. H. K. Maurer	Special Education Section, Ontario Educational Association
265. A. McAdam	Ontario Teachers' Federation
266. P. J. McAndrew	Sacred Heart College of Sudbury
267. A. McBain	Canadian Handicrafts Guild
268. R. W. McBain	Board of Public School Trustees of the Township of Teck
269. C. T. McBride	Urban School Trustees Association
270. R. E. McBrien	Ontario Association of the Deaf
271. R. S. McBurney	Public School Inspector, Kenora
272. E. V. McCarthy	Roman Catholic Separate School Board, Ottawa
273. P. A. McClelland	Board of Education, Leaside
274. Mrs. P. A. McClelland	The Ontario Federation of Home and School Associations, Incorporated
275. A. G. McColl	Principal, The Collegiate Vocational Institute, Kirkland Lake
276. B. S. McCool	Ontario Citizens' Forum
277. J. L. McCullough	Toronto District Conference of Inspectors and Normal School Staff
278. J. McCulley	The Headmasters' Association
279. J. E. McCutcheon	Physical Education Section, Ontario Educational Association
280. Miss E. McDonald	A Private Committee on Education
281. J. H. McDonald*	Connaught, Ontario
282. T. F. McIlwraith	Federation of Ontario Naturalists
283. J. C. McIntyre	Ontario Teachers' Federation
284. M. McIver	Superannuation Committee, Ontario Teachers' Federation
285. W. McKay	Ontario School Inspectors' Association
286. T. A. McKee	Ontario Teachers' Federation
287. Q. S. McKinney	Music Section, Ontario Educational Association
288. Miss J. McLaren	Ontario Teachers' Federation
289. A. McLean	Special Education Section, Ontario Educational Association

<i>Name of Witness</i>	<i>Organization Represented or Position Held at the Time of First Appearance</i>
290. Rev. E. R. McLean	Inter-Church Committee on Weekday Religious Education
291. J. McLean	College and Secondary School Department, Ontario Educational Association
292. Miss D. McManus	St. Paul's Boys' Separate School, Toronto
293. J. E. McMillin	Property Owners' Association of Toronto
294. J. H. McPherson	Physical Education Section, Ontario Educational Association
295. J. McQueen	College and Secondary School Department, Ontario Educational Association
296. D. G. McRae	Ontario Association of Architects
297. N. C. McVittie	Haileybury High School Board
298. W. R. McVittie	Committee on Rural Education, Ontario School Inspectors' Association
299. Miss D. Medhurst	Art Gallery of Toronto
300. Mrs. R. J. Meggs	The Rural Section, Ontario School Trustees' and Ratepayers' Association, Ontario Educational Association
301. T. S. Melady	Ontario School Inspectors' Association
302. D. Mewhort	Critic Teacher, Ryerson Public School, Toronto
303. Miss E. M'Gonigle	Ontario Teachers' Federation
304. C. G. Mikel	Toronto Industrial Arts and Crafts Teachers' Association
305. Mrs. F. G. Millar	The Ontario Provincial Council of Women
306. C. H. Millard	National Director, United Steelworkers of America
307. R. Millette	Separate School Inspector, Sudbury
308. A. L. Milloy	Mathematics and Physics Section, Ontario Educational Association
309. W. S. Milne	Theatral Arts Committee, Ontario Educational Association
310. F. W. Minkler	Committee on Teacher Training, Ontario School Inspectors' Association
311. J. H. Mitchell	Teachers' and Inspectors' Superannuation Commission
312. H. H. Monkman	Committee on Juvenile Delinquency, Toronto Assistant Masters' Association
313. A. M. Moon	Assistant Director of Vocational Education, Department of Education
314. D. W. Moore	Ontario Association of the Deaf
315. Miss G. Morgan	Master, Normal School, North Bay
316. G. W. Morley*	Owen Sound, Ontario
317. L. Morris	Ontario Committee, Labor-Progressive Party
318. A. C. Morris	Ontario Teachers' Federation
319. J. W. Morriss	Ontario Teachers' Federation
320. W. J. Morrison	Superintendent, Ontario School for the Deaf
321. J. E. Morse	Urban School Trustees Association
322. Miss E. Morton	Canadian Library Council
323. A. Mowatt	Provincial Inspector of Libraries
324. Rev. J. T. Muckle	Department of Classics, University of Toronto
325. Rev. F. Muldoon	Webbwood Separate School Board
326. C. R. Myers	National Committee for Mental Hygiene

<i>Name of Witness</i>	<i>Organization Represented or Position Held at the Time of First Appearance</i>
327. H. C. Nicholls	Ontario Apprenticeship Committee for the Building Trades
328. G. A. Noble	Public School Inspector, Fort William
329. Mrs. W. G. Noble	The Ontario Federation of Home and School Associations, Incorporated
330. Miss E. Noonan	Ontario Teachers' Federation
331. G. Norwood	Department of Classics, University of Toronto
332. Miss E. Nurse	Teacher, Ontario School for the Deaf
333. A. E. O'Neill	A Private Committee on Education
334. W. H. Osborne	Solicitor, Toronto Board of Education
335. F. Page	Committee on Planning, Construction and Equipment of Schools in Ontario
336. S. Page	Community Life Training Institute
337. L. A. Panton	Federation of Canadian Artists, Ontario Region
338. F. W. Park	National Council for Canadian-Soviet Friendship
339. M. H. Park	Toronto District Conference of Inspectors and Normal School Staff
340. J. B. Parkin	Committee on Planning, Construction and Equipment of Schools in Ontario
341. M. D. Parmenter	Ontario Vocational Guidance Association
342. J. A. Partridge	Principal, North Bay Normal School
343. J. H. Passmore	Physical Education Section, Ontario Educational Association
344. Miss I. Paul	Ontario Educational Association of Teachers of Art and Crafts
345. C. Peaker	Toronto Conservatory of Music
346. G. A. Pearson	Committee on Selection and Training of Rural Teachers, Ontario School Inspectors' Association
347. D. Peikoff	Ontario Association of the Deaf
348. L. A. Pequegnat	School Health Section, Ontario Educational Association
349. Miss M. Pettigrew	Chief Attendance Officer, Toronto Board of Education
350. T. N. Phelan	The Ontario Catholic Education Council
351. A. J. Phillips	Director of Study, National Committee for School Health Research
352. C. E. Phillips	The Canada and Newfoundland Education Association
353. R. D. Phillips	Acting Director of Vocational Training and Industrial Arts and Crafts, Ontario College of Education
354. Z. S. Phimister	Superintendent and Chief Inspector of Public Schools, Toronto
355. Very Rev. G. C. Pidgeon	Inter-Church Committee on Protestant-Roman Catholic Relations
356. L. Pierce	Editor, Ryerson Press
357. C. Pitt	School Psychologist, Township of East York Board of Education
358. Mrs. M. J. Poupore	Reconstruction and Rehabilitation Committee, Ontario Women's Liberal Association

<i>Name of Witness</i>	<i>Organization Represented or Position Held at the Time of First Appearance</i>
359. F. W. Presant	Alumni Association of the Ontario Agricultural College
360. Rev. A. H. Priest	Inter-Church Committee on Weekday Religious Education
361. Rev. V. Priester	Ontario Catholic Education Council
362. J. O. Proulx	Ontario Teachers' Federation
363. D. S. Puffer	School Health Section, Ontario Educational Association
364. M. F. Pummell	Superintendent of Schools, St. Catharines
365. F. B. Rainsberry	Theatral Arts Committee, Ontario Educational Association
366. W. G. Raymore	Ontario Teachers' Federation
367. J. P. Redston	Federation of Textile Technical Associations of Canada
368. S. D. Rendall	High School Inspector, Department of Education
369. R. A. Riddell	Director of Elementary Education, Hamilton
370. F. S. Rivers	Assistant Superintendent of Professional Education, Department of Education
371. C. W. Robb	Superintendent of Secondary Schools, Toronto
372. G. L. Roberts	Superannuation Committee, Ontario Teachers' Federation
373. D. A. Robinson	Urban School Trustees Association
374. M. M. Robinson	The Ontario Agricultural Commission of Inquiry
375. Miss M. Robinson	Toronto District Association of Teachers of Speech
376. S. G. Robinson	Ontario Teachers' Federation
377. S. M. Robinson	The Timmins Public School Teachers Association
378. K. H. Rogers	Secretary, Big Brother Movement of Toronto
379. L. Rosenberg	Research Director, National Body of the Canadian Jewish Congress
380. C. B. Routley	Assistant Superintendent of Elementary Education, Department of Education
381. J. L. Runnalls	Public School Inspector, Haileybury
382. Miss E. Russell	Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario
383. F. S. Rutherford	Director of Vocational Education, Department of Education
384. K. R. Rybka	Committee on Planning, Construction and Equipment of Schools in Ontario
385. E. S. Ryerson	Director, School of Physical and Health Education, University of Toronto
386. Miss H. St. John	Professor, Ontario College of Education
387. W. R. Salter	A Private Committee on Education
388. Rev. H. G. Salton	Toronto East Presbytery
389. L. H. Saunders	Association of Ontario Public School Trustees and Ratepayers
390. A. C. Savage	Ontario Co-operative Union
391. Rev. R. S. Seeley	Faculties of Arts and Divinity, Trinity College
392. Mrs. E. Shapiro	Teacher, Queen Alexandra School, Toronto
393. J. Sharp	Public Service Superannuation Board
394. C. Shaw	Provincial Advisory Committee for Building Trades

<i>Name of Witness</i>	<i>Organization Represented or Position Held at the Time of First Appearance</i>
395. N. E. Sheppard	Actuary, Teachers' and Inspectors' Superannuation Commission
396. Mrs. M. A. Shipley	Association of Ontario Mayors and Reeves
397. N. R. Sinclair	Ontario School Trustees' and Ratepayers' Association
398. Rev. G. A. Sisco	Inter-Church Committee on Protestant-Roman Catholic Relations
399. C. E. Sisson	The Engineering Institute of Canada
400. C. B. Sissons	Department of Classics, University of Toronto
401. L. L. Skuce	Committee on Text-books, Ontario School Inspectors' Association
402. D. Smith	Community Life Training Institute
403. E. E. Smith	Temiskaming Educational Association
404. Mrs. E. G. Smith	The Community Kindergarten, Timmins
405. R. Smith	The Ontario Federation of Home and School Associations, Incorporated
406. H. Sommerville	Ontario Catholic Education Council
407. L. T. Spalding	Ontario Association of School Business Officials
408. Mrs. H. B. Spaulding	Association for Religious Freedom
409. R. Speirs	Physical Education Section, Ontario Educational Association
410. J. W. Spooner	Secretary-Treasurer of the Improvement District of Mountjoy
411. R. O. Staples	Committee on Selection and Training of Rural Teachers, Ontario School Inspectors' Association
412. R. Steele	Public School Inspector, Port Arthur
413. T. Stevens	Science Teachers' Association, Ontario Educational Association
414. E. A. Stevenson	Ontario Association of the Deaf
415. K. L. Stewart	The Toronto District Association of Teachers of Speech
416. W. J. Stewart	Ontario School Inspectors' Association
417. E. H. Stoltz	Alumni Association of the Ontario Agricultural College
418. W. F. Stones	Mayor of North Bay
419. C. E. Stothers	Inspector of Auxiliary Classes, Department of Education
420. A. Stouffer	Public School Inspector, Minden
421. R. E. Streich	Webbwood Separate School Board
422. Rev. T. F. Summerhayes*	Toronto, Ontario
423. Mrs. H. Summers	Federated Women's Institutes of Ontario
424. H. Swain	Village Councillor, Nipigon
425. H. L. Sweetnam	Temiskaming Educational Association
426. J. Swinton	The Ontario Association of School Business Officials
427. F. Sylvester	Toronto Conservatory of Music
428. M. D. Tait	Department of Classics, University of Toronto
429. J. Taylor	Ontario Association of the Deaf
430. Miss N. Taylor	Ontario Commercial Teachers' Association
431. Rev. G. H. Thomas	Ontario School Trustees and Ratepayers Association

<i>Name of Witness</i>	<i>Organization Represented or Position Held at the Time of First Appearance</i>
432. J. A. Thompson	Lakehead Teachers' Council
433. Rev. E. A. Thomson	Inter-Church Committee on Weekday Religious Education
434. T. P. Topping	Assessment Department, Toronto Board of Education
435. Miss B. Touzel	Welfare Council Department, United Welfare Chest
436. J. D. Trepanier	Ontario Catholic Education Council
437. Miss F. W. Trotter	Boys' and Girls' House, Toronto Public Library
438. J. W. Trusler	Personnel Committee, Elementary Division, Ontario School Inspectors' Association
439. J. C. Tuck	Secretary, Collegiate Institute and Vocational School Board, Kirkland Lake
440. Mrs. H. A. Turner	Toronto Secondary School Masters' Wives' Association
441. J. F. Uffen	Executive Assistant, Department of Education
442. Miss G. Vezina	Critic Teacher, Garneau Separate School, Ottawa
443. G. Vincent	The Ontario Catholic Education Council
444. A. H. Waites	Corporation of the Town of Mimico
445. Miss F. Waldon	Ontario Library Association
446. H. H. Walker	Chief Accountant, Department of Education
447. W. S. Wallace	Ontario Library Association
448. J. C. Walsh	Committee on Research, Ontario School Inspectors' Association
449. A. E. Warren	Joint Committee, Ontario Society of Biologists and Natural Science Section of the Ontario Educational Association
450. Mrs. F. W. Warren	The Ontario Federation of Home and School Associations, Incorporated
451. G. Watson	Committee of Governors of Little Big Four
452. S. A. Watson	Assistant Superintendent of Elementary Education, Department of Education
453. F. D. Waugh	Ontario Commercial Teachers' Association
454. W. E. Weaver	Canadian Manufacturers' Association
455. G. Webster	The Educational Fellowship of the Township of East York
456. J. C. Webster	Committee on Selection and Training of Teachers, Ontario School Inspectors' Association
457. R. Westwater	Ontario School Inspectors' Association
458. G. Wheable	The Board of Education, London, Ontario
459. A. D. White	College and Secondary School Department, Ontario Educational Association
460. L. White	College and Secondary School Department, Ontario Educational Association
461. Mrs. T. F. White	The Teachers' Wives' Association of Toronto
462. Miss M. Whiting	Special Education Section, Ontario Educational Association
463. J. Wigdor	United Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers of America,—C.I.O. District Five Council
464. G. L. Woodruff	Formerly Public School Inspector of Cochrane

<i>Name of Witness</i>	<i>Organization Represented or Position Held at the Time of First Appearance</i>
465. E. H. Worden	College and Secondary School Department, Ontario Educational Association
466. Mrs. O. O. Worden	The Teachers' Wives' Association of Toronto
467. A. Wren	Township School Area Board of the Township of Machin
468. D. Wren	The Workers' Educational Association
469. Miss W. Wright	Home Economics Section, Ontario Educational Association
470. Miss E. Wyn Wood	Ontario Branch, Sculptors' Society of Canada
471. C. R. Young	Dean, Faculty of Applied Science and Engineering, University of Toronto
472. Miss I. Young	Home Economics Section, Ontario Educational Association
473. K. Young	Director of the Universities Adult Education Board of Ontario
474. Miss M. C. Young	Master, Toronto Normal School
475. W. T. Ziegler	Principal, Kitchener-Waterloo Collegiate and Vocational School

